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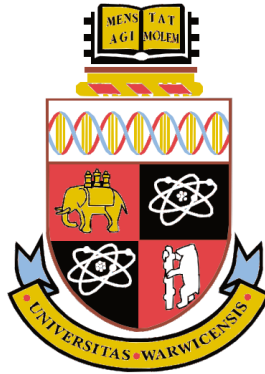
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**‘Authenticity’ in English language teaching and learning:  
A case study of four high school classrooms in Turkey**

by

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor  
of Philosophy in English Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics

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**Abbreviations**

BA: Bachelor's degree

CEFR: Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

EAP: English for Academic Purposes

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

EGP: English for General Purposes

ELT: English Language Teaching

ESP: English for Specific Purposes

L1: Mother tongue (Turkish)

L2: Target language (English)

MoNE: Ministry of National Education (in Turkey)

OHP: Overhead projector

OUP: Oxford University Press

TT: Teacher trainee

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**Declaration**

I declare that this thesis is my own work. It has not been previously submitted to elsewhere for a degree, diploma or any other qualification.

Erkan Külekçi

## **Abstract**

The notion of ‘authenticity’ has been revisited and discussed by the researchers and practitioners in the field of English language teaching (ELT) over recent years. However, it is usually described within a limited framework that focuses on the quality of texts used in ELT, often without paying attention to the ways and contexts in which those texts are used by language learners and teachers. Following van Lier’s definition of authenticity as ‘the result of acts of authentication, by students and their teacher, of the learning process and the language used in it’ (1996, p.128), this study focuses on the dynamic and multi-dimensional nature of authenticity in the language classroom.

In ELT literature, there are a limited number of studies on this issue and the majority of them have provided prescriptive or theoretical discussion or focused on ‘text authenticity’ and the ‘correspondence account’ of authenticity rather than encompassing different dimensions and accounts of authenticity in a more holistic way. The present study addresses this gap and explores the relationships between different dimensions of authenticity in four 9<sup>th</sup> grade classrooms in two Anatolian High Schools in Ankara, Turkey.

This study adopts the qualitative research tradition and is tailored as an embedded multiple-case design with multiple data collection methods such as classroom observations, semi-structured interviews and documents (e.g. textbook extracts). The data was analysed separately for each unit of analysis (i.e. classroom) and themes were developed inductively. The findings revealed that authenticity should be seen as a phenomenon (co)constructed through human actors’ engagement and validation in the classroom context rather than as an inherent quality of materials or activities. The main characteristics of this process were discussed under the key themes that emerged from cross-case comparison. These themes were listed as Spontaneity, Discrepancy, Personalisation, Humour, Didacticity (genesis and accommodation) and Localisation.

## CHAPTER 1

# INTRODUCTION

### 1.1. Research focus

In the field of English language teaching (ELT), the term ‘authenticity’ often refers to the quality of materials as produced by ‘real’ speakers of English and/or not specifically produced for English language teaching and learning. In fact, when I was studying for my bachelor’s degree (BA) in ELT in Turkey, our university lecturers were often encouraging us, as prospective language teachers, to use ‘authentic’ materials in our lessons to enhance students’ language learning experience. After my graduation, I tried to use ‘authentic’ materials (e.g. newspaper articles, event flyers, films, TV comedies etc.) in my classrooms at a state high school in Turkey and later at a non-profit organisation in the United States of America that provided educational and social services to immigrants and refugees. During these teaching experiences, I developed a greater interest in whether bringing ‘authentic’ materials into the classroom could provide a better learning experience and indeed what would make language samples ‘authentic’ or ‘real’ for language learners. I also focused on this issue as one of the main themes in my master’s dissertation, which was based on my teaching practice in the USA (i.e. the role of authenticity in promoting learner autonomy in an ESL classroom).

In the literature, several attempts have been made to define authenticity in ELT, although mainly through theoretical discussion with an apparent lack of empirical,

classroom-based evidence. This has not only deepened the complexity of ‘authenticity’ but also ‘widened its scope’ in the field (Joy, 2011, p.10). Moreover, the debate over the term includes research from various related fields such as ‘discourse and conversational analysis, pragmatics, cross-cultural studies, learner autonomy, information and communication technology, motivation research and materials development’ (Gilmore, 2007b, p.94). The main focus of this study is not on adding a further layer of theorisation but on investigating ‘authenticity’ as a dynamic and multi-faceted phenomenon in foreign language education. The main motivations for this research are related to my own teaching experiences, the promotion of limited, materials-based definitions of authenticity in practice, the theoretical discussion in the literature, which can be rather confusing for both practitioners and researchers, and a growing need for a classroom-based study for ‘authenticity’ in the field.

## **1.2. Research purpose**

‘Authenticity’ in ELT has become a somewhat slippery concept and it refers not only to a quality of materials but also to the process of selection and presentation of texts and tasks, learners’ responses to these and the contextual role of the language classroom in this process (Breen, 1985a; Gilmore, 2007b; Shomoossi & Ketabi, 2007). In the literature, these points of reference are often discussed under distinctive ‘types’ of authenticity (i.e. text authenticity, task authenticity, learner authenticity and classroom authenticity). As the word ‘type’ can draw artificial borders between these entities, I prefer to call each of them a facet or a dimension of authenticity in this study, and approach this issue from a perspective that emphasises the interwoven, dynamic and non-hierarchical relationship between them.

In everyday use it is also possible to discuss two different accounts of ‘authenticity’ as correspondence and genesis:

For church historians, a text is authentic when it *corresponds* with the events it purports to describe; whereas John’s signature is authentic when it has the right *genesis* – John himself. (Cooper, 1983, p.8, emphasis added)

The field of language teaching usually focuses on the notion of correspondence when it deals with the issue of authenticity (MacDonald, Badger & Dasli, 2006). For example, ‘text authenticity’ is often used for the texts that represent ‘real language use’ outside the classroom, thus referring to a correspondence between texts used in the language classroom with pedagogic purposes and ‘real world’ language use in everyday communication. Likewise, a classroom task can be considered authentic if it successfully reflects an excerpt of ‘real life’ activity in language use. As for the genesis account of authenticity, on the other hand, Breen’s (1985a) concept of ‘classroom authenticity’ can be discussed as a relevant conceptualisation. Breen (1985a) suggests that every classroom is an authentic setting with particular structures and purposes; therefore pedagogic texts and tasks produced and used in the classroom can be ‘authentic’ as well. For instance, a relatively ‘mechanical’ vocabulary task can be considered ‘authentic’ as long as it is seen as relevant and useful by the people in the classroom. However, as text and task authenticity usually do not pay attention to the genesis account of authenticity, discussions on classroom authenticity may dismiss the correspondence account. At this point, MacDonald et al. (2006) highlight that ‘it is time to synthesise these two accounts of authenticity’ in language teaching and applied linguistics (p.251). I take these two accounts of authenticity into consideration in this classroom-based study as well.



Van Lier (1996) defines authenticity as a process of ‘validation or authentication conducted by the participants in a language learning setting’ (p.127). Moreover, the term can be described as ‘a process of engagement’ and ‘a characteristic of the persons engaged in learning’ (*ibid.*, p.125). This definition involves references to existentialist philosophy in which authenticity can imply self-awareness and self-determination. In the present study, I embrace this definition and address ‘authenticity’ as a phenomenon (co)constructed by the participants in the classroom context. I also address this issue by covering different dimensions of authenticity as well as the relationships between these dimensions within a social context and hence through a more holistic and dynamic account. Specifically, the present study aims to investigate the interaction between different dimensions and accounts of authenticity in the language classroom as a process of authentication by learners and teachers of their language learning and teaching experiences. It thereby embraces an inductive and interpretive approach towards research.

### **1.3. Research questions**

In line with the purpose of this study, the main research questions have been set out as follows:

1. To what extent is the language learning and teaching experience authentic for the participants?
2. What is the relationship between the context and the participants’ experiences of language learning and teaching?

The first question aims to explore the participants’ acts and attempts to (co)construct an authentic experience in the English language lessons. The second question, on the other hand, aims to explore the relationship between the context (e.g. classroom

context and wider contexts) and the participants' experience in the language lessons. These questions are presented in detail in Section 4.1.

#### **1.4. Research context**

This study was conducted in four 9<sup>th</sup> grade classrooms in two Anatolian high schools in Ankara, Turkey. The primary reasons for choosing this particular research context can be listed as follows: (1) I was familiar with the ELT context in Turkey both as a language learner and a language teacher, (2) I had previous teaching experiences in Turkey with high school level language learners (9<sup>th</sup> grades in particular) both as a language teacher trainee and language teacher, (3) classroom-based studies in ELT have been often conducted in either university level or in private schools in Turkey, which creates a need for research on language classrooms in state schools, (4) Anatolian high schools provided more language lesson hours than general high schools did and it was claimed that language learning opportunities in these schools were better than the ones in general high schools, and finally (5) I considered some practical issues such as accessing to the research sites.

In the following sub-sections, I will present an overall view of ELT in Turkish context. The specific details about the school and classroom contexts selected in this study can be found in Section 4.5.1. It should be noted that the information given below was valid and accurate for the period in which this research was being conducted (2012 – 2013 academic year). It is also worth noting that understanding of 'authenticity' in ELT in the selected 9<sup>th</sup> grade classrooms in Turkey and the proposed conceptualisation of authentication (see Chapter 3) as well as the implications of this research (see Chapter 9) can potentially go beyond this primary context. That is,

most ELT contexts would be suitable for investigating the validity of the conceptualisation presented in this study.

#### **1.4.1. ELT in Turkey**

Turkey can be considered as one of the ‘expanding circle’ countries proposed by Kachru (1985, 1992) in his model of three concentric circles where he describes acquisition and functions of English language within each circle. That is, English is regarded not as an official or second language, but as a foreign language in Turkey. Historically, ELT became a part of the Turkish education system in the second half of the eighteenth century (i.e. in the Ottoman era). In recent years, it has become more significant in Turkey due to the reasons such as the status of English as an international language, the special geopolitical status of the country and Turkey’s efforts to play an important role in the international area, especially to join the European Union (Alptekin & Tatar, 2011; Doğançay-Aktuna, 1998; Kırkgöz, 2005; 2007; Öztürk & Atay, 2010; Sarıçoban & Sarıçoban, 2012).

It is possible to examine the developments of English language teaching policy in Turkey within three distinct periods: a historical recognition and spread of English in the Turkish education system, implementation of ‘a major ELT curriculum reform’ in 1997 and revision of 1997 curriculum especially after 2005 (Kırkgöz, 2005; 2007). After the curriculum reform in 1997, emphasis was put particularly on the importance of communicative and learner-centred learning approaches in ELT. The last major educational reform was enacted by the Turkish government in 2012 by implementing a new system called ‘4+4+4’ which refers to four years of primary education (first level), four years of primary/secondary education (second level of primary education) and four years of secondary education (high schools). One of the

consequences of the new system (i.e. 4+4+4) was the introduction of English lessons in the 2<sup>nd</sup> grade. As the new system was implemented in 2012-2013 with the first grades, the changes did not include the participants of this research.

The participants, however, started their formal education after the educational reforms in 1997, which enforced the introduction of English as a school subject at the 4<sup>th</sup> grade instead of the 6<sup>th</sup> grade. This reform aimed to provide an earlier introduction (i.e. in primary schools) of and a longer systemic exposure to English. As a result, all of the research participants started learning English at the schools before the 5<sup>th</sup> grade in their primary schools.

In recent years, the principles and descriptors of the Common European Framework of Reference for languages: learning, teaching, assessment (hereafter, CEFR) have been followed closely in the language teaching programmes in Turkey. In fact, the placement of the students and the evaluation of the curricular goals set for the language lessons were carried out according to CEFR in all of the state schools, thus in the selected schools in this study as well (see Appendix 1.2).

The ELT curriculum in Turkey has not required a particular variety of English in the language lessons. The materials provided by the Ministry of Education or private publishers usually involve British English and related cultural themes. It is, however, possible to encounter a language teacher using American English spelling and pronunciation while teaching with a textbook prepared in British English (in terms of reading and listening texts).

#### **1.4.2. Authenticity in ELT in Turkey**

The 1997 curriculum can be regarded as one of the cornerstones of the field of ELT in Turkey as, for the first time, the concept of the communicative approach was introduced in the context of language teaching in Turkey (Kırkgöz, 2005, 2007). After this curricular change, language practitioners and academicians started to pay close attention to using ‘authentic materials’ and implementing communicative tasks with ‘real’ language use and communication goals. For example, the ELT curriculum for the secondary schools (2011), which was in practice during the data collection, promoted using ‘authentic texts’ in reading explicitly. The latest curriculum (2014) also promotes ‘authenticity’ in materials and tasks used in the classroom although it does not provide a clear definition of the term (see Appendix 1.1). Moreover, in the Turkish National Thesis Database<sup>1</sup>, which involves submitted records of both masters’ dissertations and doctoral theses produced in Turkey, it is possible to find several studies concerned with the notion of authenticity in ELT in Turkey after 1999 while there are only two project titles listed before 1996. Most of these studies investigated the issue of authenticity in terms of the ‘quality’ and functions of materials (e.g. being produced by native speakers and/or produced for communicative purposes rather than pedagogic ones) and possible impacts of these materials on learners’ attitudes and motivation. Furthermore, most of these studies relied on quantitative analysis of results from control and experimental groups or limited qualitative data. Some of these studies are listed in Appendix 1.3.

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<sup>1</sup> National Thesis Centre, The Council of Higher Education – <https://tez.yok.gov.tr/UlusalTezMerkezi/>

### **1.5. Research design**

The present study is situated within the qualitative research tradition and adopts an embedded, multiple-case design. The following research methods, discussed in detail in Chapter 4, were used as data collection instruments.

- a. Field journals: ‘Field journals’ in this study involve two separate but interrelated entities. They are field notes (classroom observation notes and additional notes taken in the research site) and a researcher’s diary. Keeping the field journals, I tried to observe the participants’ engagement with texts and interactions in order to make them ‘authentic’ (the process of bestowing authenticity upon a text, task or interaction is what I am calling in this thesis ‘authentication’). I was aware of the fact that it was not an easy task for me to identify participants’ actions and responses as evidence of authentication. Bearing this in mind, I carried out piloting first, during which I tried to develop efficient and effective research instruments and to understand the general nature of language teaching in the research contexts. Furthermore, I always compared and contrasted what I observed in the classroom and what I learned from the interviews. Thus, I used method triangulation for reviewing and revising one method depending on the outcome of another to enhance validity and reliability.
- b. Interviews: In order to elicit teachers’ and learners’ perceptions and thoughts about the notion of authenticity and to gain deeper understanding of the possible reasons for their decisions and actions, I conducted multiple, semi-structured interviews with the participants.

- c. Documents: Related documents (e.g. copies of written materials such as textbook pages or learners' written work) were collected, grouped and analysed according to their contents and/or their uses in the classroom.

In addition to these methods, qualitative research recognises the researcher as 'the human instrument' in the processes of data collection and analysis (Merriam, 1998, 2009). I believe that knowledge and meaningful reality are co-constructed through interactions between the researcher, participants and other contextual elements. Therefore, I, as the researcher, have been inevitably a part of the research design in this study as well (see Section 4.2).

#### **1.6. Significance of the study**

Considering the research focus and purpose stated above and the gap in the literature presented in the next chapter, the significance of this study can be listed as follows:

- a. My review of the literature revealed that most of the studies on authenticity in ELT provide prescriptive or theoretical discussion. There is a limited number of classroom-based empirical studies on this issue (see Brown, 2011; Gilmore, 2007b). Research that aims to develop a holistic conceptualisation of authenticity by addressing the multi-dimensional nature of this phenomenon is especially needed in the field. The present study is significant not only as it encompasses different dimensions of authenticity within observed classroom situations, but also as it attempts to combine both the correspondence and genesis accounts of authenticity in ELT context.
- b. This research is also significant because it addresses different dimensions of authenticity from a social constructivist perspective. While it recognises the important role and effect of each individual dimension (e.g. text, teacher and

learner), it aims to draw a holistic picture by focusing on the dynamic social relationships between these dimensions (see Chapter 3).

- c. Most current studies on authenticity have been conducted in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) or English for Academic Purposes (EAP) settings at the university level or in the context of English for General Purposes (EGP) at private schools which may provide better academic opportunities for their learners and teachers. It can be claimed that there is a paucity of research conducted on English language classrooms in state schools, especially in Turkey. Moreover, the previous research projects carried out in these contexts have usually relied on quantitative survey design and described ‘authenticity’ as a quality of materials only. Thus they have lacked an in-depth investigation of the issue. The present study is significant as it aims to narrow this existing gap in the literature.
- d. Questioning the traditional definition of authenticity (e.g. native-speaker-based correspondence account), Badger and MacDonald (2010) state that in language classrooms ‘there is too much focus on making what happens in the classroom as authentic as possible and not enough on helping learners to develop their skills so that they can read/listen independently’ (p.581). The present study aims to respond to this call and to provide useful implications that can help learners raise their awareness of the nature of the process of authentication in the learning environment. As a result, it can provide valuable information to bridge the potential gap between the notions of authenticity and autonomy in ELT. Likewise, such implications can be very useful for language teachers and teacher educators to understand the



conceptualisation of authenticity as a multi-faceted phenomenon and to improve their classroom practices.

### **1.7. Overview**

This thesis consists of nine chapters. Following this introductory chapter, Chapter 2 introduces a detailed review of the literature on ‘authenticity’ in ELT, which provides the reader with a relatively chronological trajectory of the use of this term in the field. Chapter 3 provides the conceptual framework adopted in this study and a model showing the dimensions of authenticity in the language classroom. Chapter 4 introduces and justifies the research methodology used in this study. Considerations of validity, reliability, ethics and limitations are also discussed in this chapter. The following four chapters (i.e. Chapters 5, 6, 7 and 8) present the sets of findings from the units of analysis in this study (i.e. classrooms). Each findings chapter includes contextual details and three themes developed from the data. Finally, Chapter 9 includes the discussion of the findings and conclusion along with the implications of this study and future directions for research.

## CHAPTER 2

# LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.1. Introduction

The notion of authenticity has been revisited and discussed in the field of ELT over recent years. Particularly, the promotion of the communicative approach as a highly effective and efficient means of foreign/second language teaching has brought the concept into the focus of ELT researchers and practitioners (see Clarke, 1989; Gilmore, 2007a; Guariento & Morley, 2001; Kramsch & Sullivan, 1996; Little, Devitt & Singleton, 1989; Mitchell, 1994; Murray, 1996; Widdowson, 1979, 1996). For instance, Murray (1996) lists ‘authenticity’ as one of the most basic principles of communicative language teaching (CLT). According to the corpus-based research conducted by Hunter (2009), the word ‘authentic’ is one of the fifteen key-words which became prominent in the *ELT Journal* between 1973 and 1986, when CLT was strongly promoted in the field. In addition, the term ‘authenticity’ has been recently listed as one of the ‘key concepts in ELT’ by the *ELT Journal* (Buendgens-Kosten, 2014).

In a broad sense, the goal of CLT is to help language learners develop communicative competence to be capable of dealing with the ‘real’ use of language outside the classroom. In order to achieve this, it is assumed that language learners need to experience ‘real language’ through ‘real life tasks’ in the classroom context (Clarke, 1989; Feng & Byram, 2002; Hedge, 2000; Widdowson, 1979, Wilkins,

1976). This focus on ‘realness’ has made the term ‘authenticity’ a popular one in terms of the materials and task design in ELT and placed ‘authenticity’ at the very core of language teaching tasks (Little et al., 1989; Nunan, 1989; Roberts & Cooke, 2009). Moreover, recently it has been regarded as a distinctive component of ‘the intellectual resources’ of ELT (Badger & MacDonald, 2010, p.578). As a result, language teachers and materials producers have been feeling rather obliged to produce and/or provide ‘authentic input’ for learners in order to meet learners’ ‘communicative needs’ (Brown & Menace, 1993; Mitchell, 1994).

Lynch (1982) presents three possible reasons for why the word ‘authenticity’ became something of a slogan in ELT, especially after CLT. The reasons are listed as ethnographic motives (i.e. eliciting, explaining, presenting and using actual, pure data), language-as-interaction approaches (i.e. speech act theory, communicative goals) and existing reactions to syntax-based views of linguistics (p.9-11). Whatever the main reasons are, it has been widely assumed that relying on authentic input to use the target language fluently and meaningfully leads to efficient preparation of students for ‘authentic language use’ outside the classroom (Thornbury, 2011, 189).

However, CLT is not the only or the last approach in the field of ELT. The field has been always ‘in transition’, and one of the current transitions ELT methodology is going through is called ‘post-method pedagogy’ (Kumaravadivelu, 1994; 2001; Pica, 2000). In the post-method pedagogy, the main focus is on enabling language teachers to meet the needs of their ‘particular’ learners in ‘particular’ contexts, as well as to ‘theorise from [their teaching] practice and to practice what they theorise’ (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, p.30). While the concept of ‘authenticity’ or ‘real language

use' is not promoted explicitly within post-method pedagogy, language teachers are encouraged to develop an appropriate pedagogy in the light of their classroom-oriented practices through which learners become 'effective learners' who can cope with language-use situations both inside and outside the classroom (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, 2001). Moreover, placing learners and teachers' local practices in the centre of language education and focusing on particularity and practicality, post-method pedagogy implicitly highlights the 'subjectified' approach to authenticity through which learners' context-based and cultural interpretation of the learning process and materials becomes significant (see Kumaravadivelu, 2001; MacDonald et al., 2006). In fact, it is this 'subjectified' approach that has been adopted and attempted to be described and explored in this study.

## **2.2. Defining authenticity in ELT**

Although 'authenticity' is widely and frequently used in fields of ELT and Applied Linguistics, the term does not have a clear description (Adams, 1995; Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998; Taylor, 1994; Trabelsi, 2011), and in practice, 'little thought is often given to its intrinsic meaning and application' (Shommoosi & Ketabi, 2008, p.177). Due to varied use of the terminology, various descriptions and different categorisation or criteria related to the same concept, the term 'authenticity' becomes elusive and rather slippery. Traditionally, the term is used to refer to 'real' language samples and materials produced by 'native speakers of English' without any language teaching purposes (see Adams, 1995). For example, in the *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics* (1985) the word 'authenticity' is defined as 'the degree to which language teaching materials have the qualities of natural speech or writing' (p.22). In the fourth edition of the dictionary, although there are separate entries as 'authentic materials' and 'authenticity', the

term ‘authenticity’ is still defined merely as a text-based notion (i.e. texts that have been taken from ‘real-world sources’) (2010, p.42). However, it is possible to find other descriptions of the term beyond this text-focused approach.

Some scholars emphasise that the concept should not be limited to the quality of materials only as we can discuss different ‘types’ of authenticity in the language classroom (see Breen, 1985a; Nunan, 1988; Taylor, 1994). Gilmore (2007a; 2007b), for example, identified eight ‘inter-related’ meanings of authenticity in the ELT literature. These can be summarised as (1) native speaker-oriented definitions, (2) realness-oriented definitions, (3) the qualities bestowed on a text by receivers, (4) the interaction between students and teachers and their engagement in the lesson, (5) types of tasks, (6) the social situation of the classroom, (7) the qualities and criteria of assessment, (8) culture and target language community (p.98). Although Gilmore (2007a, 2007b) listed this complexity and the inter-related reference points in the literature, he preferred to ‘limit the concept to objectifiable criteria’ and adopted the ‘realness’ criteria in his work. As a result, he followed the traditional ‘materials-based’ definition of authenticity to investigate the potentials of ‘authentic materials’ to develop language learners’ communicative competence through the control (with two EFL textbooks) and experimental (with authentic materials) groups in a Japanese university. His findings revealed that the authentic materials were more effective in developing a range of communicative competencies in the learners than the textbook materials (Gilmore, 2007a; 2011).

Concentrating on the context of language classroom with its participants (i.e. teachers, learners) and their purposes, Breen (1985a) lists four ‘types’ of

authenticity, or in Widdowson's words 'four senses of authenticity' (1990), in the language classroom as (1) text authenticity, (2) learner authenticity, (3) task authenticity and (4) classroom authenticity, which are closely related with each other. He also lists four demands for authenticity that a language teacher needs to take into consideration (*ibid.*, p.61). In fact, these four questions inform the basis of the present research as well.

- a. What is an authentic text?
- b. For whom is it authentic?
- c. For what authentic purpose?
- d. In which particular social situation?

Describing authenticity as a 'multi-layered concept', Brown and Menasche (1993) also propose a model for authenticity involving three 'types', namely input, task and output authenticity (see also Brown, 2011). The authors state that in their model, each type of authenticity contains several degrees as well, which provides more effective and productive view of authenticity than the simplistic binary views of authenticity (authentic vs. inauthentic). According to Brown and Menasche (1993) five types of input authenticity (i.e. genuine, altered, adapted, simulated authenticity and inauthenticity), three types of task authenticity (genuine, simulated and pedagogical task authenticity) and two types of output authenticity (genuine and simulated) can be observed. The authors explicitly emphasise that complex and variable relations and presentations within and between types and degrees of authenticity can occur during language instruction in the classroom.

Instead of discussing the concept of ‘authenticity’ through its possible types and degrees, Trabelsi (2011; 2014) presents four trends or approaches in the literature that describe authenticity from different perspectives. These four trends categorise authenticity as (1) a native speaker property, (2) use of language for social purposes, (3) learners’ interaction with and their positive responses to the text and (4) a practical notion related to the learners’ motives, needs and interests. Investigating the notion of authenticity of business English materials in a Tunisian context, Trabelsi proposed a new approach to authenticity in his study and described authentic materials as ‘special materials designed for specific group of learners with specific goals in a specific context during a specific period of time’ (2011; 2014). Although this definition provides learner- and context- specificity as main criteria, it is still materials-based (as the purpose is to design ‘authentic materials’) and limits the term with strict specificity. His contributions, on the other hand, lie in the new authenticity approach, i.e. ‘the authenticity framework’, that emphasises authenticity as ‘a function of participants, the use to which language is made, the setting, the nature of interaction and the interpretation the participants/stakeholders bring to both the setting and the activity’ (Trabelsi, 2011, p.154). In this sense, Trabelsi (2011) challenges the traditional descriptors of correspondence account.

### **2.2.1. Genesis and correspondence accounts of authenticity**

Investigating the term from a philosophical perspective, Cooper (1983) claims that everyday use of the term ‘authenticity’ can be explained within two accounts: correspondence and genesis (p.8). Which account is adopted usually determines how we interpret and describe authenticity. For example, an authentic portrait may be authentic if it is ‘a portrait of the right person’ (the notion of correspondence) or if it is ‘a portrait by the right person’ (the notion of genesis). The field of philosophy and

its various branches tend to legitimate either the correspondence notion or the genesis notion to discuss ‘authenticity’ rather than encompassing both of the notions simultaneously (Cooper, 1983, p.8). Like different branches of philosophy, the fields of language teaching and applied linguistics also focus on only one account of authenticity, and this is often the correspondence account (see MacDonald et al., 2006).

In the present study, the genesis account of authenticity will be described in terms of the learners’ and teachers’ genuine contributions and productions (e.g. texts, tasks or dialogues in general) in the classroom. Thus, it refers to the individual contributions of the participants to illustrate the mode of formation of the relationship between different dimensions of authenticity (see Chapter 3). The correspondence account, on the other hand, is often addressed through possible comparisons between the language samples used in the classroom and in the communicative contexts outside the classroom. Here, ‘the communicative context outside the classroom’ has been traditionally described as language use by (native) speakers of English from the inner circle (Kachru, 1992). Investigating the implementation of communicative language teaching in the Asia-Pacific region, Butler (2011) claims that ‘the concept of authenticity is ambiguously understood in many Asian EFL contexts’ (p.41), and she challenges the correspondence account of authenticity by questioning whether the ‘authentic’ texts and tasks should reflect the use of language in the target language communities or learners’ daily lives and their own communicative purposes (p.42). I believe that her critique here can be broadened to other EFL contexts as well. In the present study, the correspondence account refers to the possible comparisons between language-use in the classroom and language-use in other ‘communicative



contexts' outside the classroom that the participants may encounter in their daily lives. In addition to addressing a comparison with language-use in different communicative contexts, I believe that, the correspondence account should also involve the relationship between language samples and the pedagogical purposes in the classroom (see Chapter 9).

Revisiting the four 'types' of authenticity presented by Breen (1985a), and examining each of them in the light of the 'correspondence' and 'genesis' accounts of authenticity (Cooper, 1983), MacDonald et al. (2006) argue that while classroom authenticity is usually conceptualised as an example of the genesis account (i.e. classroom as the origin of texts); text authenticity, learner authenticity and the authenticity of language competence are usually conceptualised as examples of the correspondence account of authenticity in the literature (p.251). Challenging this 'one-sided attachment', the authors ask the following questions for each type of authenticity (p.253):

- a. text authenticity – whose texts?
- b. learner authenticity – whose meaning?
- c. competence authenticity – whose competence?
- d. classroom authenticity – whence the text?

In their paper, MacDonald et al. (2006) also state that the term in ELT should encompass both correspondence and genesis accounts through 'a more hybrid view of authenticity' because 'one-sided attachment' of the concept in the field may cause 'impoverishment and objectification of the experience of language learning' (p.250). The present research aims to combine both correspondence and genesis

accounts of authenticity in ELT context. Moreover, this study also intends to cover different ‘types’ of authenticity (e.g. text, task) as the ‘aspects’ or ‘dimensions’ of the concept. I believe that the word ‘type’ draws somewhat artificial borders between these entities and their interactions with each other in terms of authenticity.

Indeed, as van Lier (1996) states, ‘the issue of authenticity is by no means as simple as some communicative methodologists may lead us to believe’ (p.144). According to the author, authenticity is the result of ‘authentication’, which can be described as the process of validation of classroom events and language by learners and teachers (p.133). Here, van Lier (1996) presents a number of authenticity types depending on the ‘conditions under which authentication can take place’ and he discusses both constraints and resources that influence the process of authentication in the language classroom. These types are listed as curricular (creator, finder, user), pragmatic (context, purpose, interaction) and personal (existential, intrinsic, autotelic) (*ibid.*, p.136-145).

As presented above, beyond its reference as a quality of texts, the concept is ‘a matter of interpretation’ which may result in confusing and even conflicting descriptions (Gilmore, 2007b; Roberts & Cooke, 2009; Taylor, 1994; Trabelsi, 2014). In fact, since it does encompass more than its primary reference in ELT today (i.e. text authenticity), one can even claim that the concept of authenticity in ELT might not be ‘authentic’ anymore (MacDonald et al., 2000, p.254). However, this can be challenged easily especially if we acknowledge the multi-dimensional and dynamic nature of ‘authenticity’ in personal, professional and social levels. I would indeed argue that a term might not actually lose its ‘authenticity’ by expanding

beyond its original meaning, but it could ‘expand’ the conceptual (and sometimes practical) boundaries of its reference. This view also emphasises the need for adopting ‘a more hybrid view of authenticity’ in the field of language teaching and learning (MacDonald et al. 2006, p.250).

In the light of current approaches and categorisations of authenticity, the different dimensions of authenticity will be discussed under three headings below, which represents three main dimensions of authenticity. It includes *text*, *interaction* (i.e. learner, task and teacher) and *culture* (i.e. small and large cultures). In fact, this presentation is somewhat consonant with the trajectory of the use of the term through ELT history.

### **2.3. Authenticity and text**

As mentioned above, the term ‘authenticity’ has been frequently discussed in the literature from a text-based perspective in which the purpose and/or the producer of a text has a defining role. The word ‘text’ here refers to any printed or recorded, written or spoken data, language samples and materials in general. In this sense, this reference echoes Halliday’s definition of text as ‘language that is functional... language that is doing some job in some contexts’ (1989, p.10). Here, ‘text’ can also include ‘realia’ in language education as the word ‘realia’ has been used earlier in language education to label authentic materials (Abdul-Kareem, 1999). Furthermore, phrases such as ‘authentic text’, ‘authentic input’ and ‘authentic materials’ are used interchangeably throughout the discussion below, through which a brief historical trajectory of the conception of authenticity in ELT will be (re)visited.

In 1970s, Wilkins highlights that if the main aim of language teaching is to develop learners' ability to communicate meanings appropriately, 'new' types of materials should be preferred in the language classroom (1976, p.77). By 'new' materials, the author refers to 'authentic' ones, which reflect 'real' language use by native speakers of English (*ibid.*, p.79). In Wilkins's words, a text is authentic when it is 'originally directed at a native-speaking audience' and when it is not produced for language teaching purposes (p.79). Likewise, Morrow (1977) describes authentic texts as 'real' language samples produced and used by 'real' language users to convey a 'real' message (p.13). In their article, in which the authenticity of listening activities in language classrooms was studied in detail, Porter and Roberts (1981) also describe authentic texts as 'real' language samples produced by and for native speakers without any pedagogical purpose (p.37).

Focusing on the purpose of texts rather than their producers, other scholars define authentic texts as materials that are used in the language classroom without having been produced for any pedagogic purposes in the first place (Arnold, 1991; Davies, 1997; Maingay, 1980; Nunan, 1989; Tomlinson, 1998). Little et al. (1989), for example, defines an authentic text as a text that has been created to 'fulfil some social purpose in the language community in which it was produced' (p.25). The main aim of the language classroom is to help learners handle 'real-world communication' in target language, and since authentic texts can have the capacity to introduce the communicative world of the target language community, these texts should be used in the language classroom (Berardo, 2006; Clarke, 1989; Guariento and Morley, 2001; Little, 1997; Nunan, 1988). For this reason, Little et al. (1989) state that although some language teachers prefer to use authentic texts as

supplementary materials in the classroom, these texts should be at the centre in language teaching process (p.109).

Widdowson (1983) describes the term ‘authenticity’ as learners’ ‘interpretative procedures for making sense’ of the language samples produced by ‘native speakers’ without any pedagogical purposes (p.30). Since this situation creates its own ambiguity, Widdowson (1979, 1983) makes a distinction between genuineness (of the text) and authenticity (of the process), implying that the notion of authenticity does not merely embrace the quality of text. In other words a text cannot be ‘authentic’ by its very nature, but ‘genuine’ since ‘authenticity’ is the quality that ‘is bestowed upon [the text]’ by language users and learners. According to Widdowson (1979), authenticity can be achieved only when the user is able to have a functional interaction with the text itself and interpret the text appropriately in terms of text author’s intentions (p.165). Therefore, the aim of the language classroom is to develop an authentic response of learners through a well-designed pedagogic methodology, and this makes the pedagogic process as important as choosing the text to promote authenticity (p.167).

Widdowson (1979) also emphasises that the focus of language teaching should be on applying an effective methodology instead of discussing the definition and norms of the term ‘authenticity’ (p.163). Language learners are ‘learners’ so they are not capable of realising authentic responses to target language ‘in the manner of the native speaker’ (Widdowson, 1990, p.45). Moreover, he claims that exposing language learners to authentic data before they acquire ‘real’ language users’ discourse and norms may result in an impoverishment of pedagogic responsibility of

the language education (1979, p.171). Therefore, language classrooms should aim at building a shared knowledge of conventions by gradually presenting relevant norms of the target discourse to language learners (p.166), and helping them develop an appropriate interaction with genuine texts related to their purposes (p.170). It is thus not always productive to expose learners to genuine language before the learners get familiar with the conventions and are able to realise the sample as 'authentic' (p.166). All in all, Widdowson (1990) claims that learners' ability to respond to genuine texts authentically is the ultimate goal of the language classroom, it is not a fundamental part of the process of language teaching (p.45).

Following these definitions, various functions of the use of authentic materials in the language classroom have been listed in the literature. For example, according to Wilkins (1976) although most learners may be able to express themselves and convey the message appropriately in communication, they have struggles to comprehend the 'real' language produced 'by native speakers for native speakers' (p.79). Therefore, by promoting the receptive competence of the learner, authentic materials can help learners to overcome the possible problems in their comprehension when they communicate with 'native' speakers. Second, when presented carefully, authentic materials give learners the opportunity to bridge the possible gaps between their classroom experience and 'real' communicative situations outside the classroom. In this way, the learners can compare the language they learn in the classroom and the language used in other settings (Berardo, 2006; Duda & Tyne, 2010; Roberts & Cooke, 2009; Wilkins, 1976). Third, authentic materials can enhance general world knowledge and stimulate learners' interests and interactions in the target language (Little et al., 1989). Finally, although this point is

highly questionable and controversial especially in today's multi-cultural environments of language learning and use, Little et al. (1989) claim that in terms of language acquisition, sufficient exposure to authentic texts can 'replicate the language bath in which the first language learner is immersed from birth' (p.26).

As a result, it is usually assumed that using authentic texts in language classrooms offers several benefits, especially considering the fact that there are still significant differences between these texts and other materials designed for language learning. In the literature, some studies have presented the differences between ELT listening texts and authentic texts such as intonation, structural repetition, turn-taking patterns, pace, formality and so on. Porter and Roberts (1981), for example, state that 'there is a massive mismatch' between the features of language texts used in language classrooms and of authentic texts used in 'real' communication settings (p.38). In a similar fashion, Gilmore (2004) points out how textbook dialogues differ from 'their authentic equivalents' in terms of discourse features such as length, lexical density, turn-taking patterns and so on. The author claims that there is a salient difference between contrived dialogues and authentic ones, and he states that 'real life is not as simple and straightforward as textbooks often suggest' (*ibid.*, p.366). According to Gilmore (2004), materials designers have started to pay more attention to discourse features of authentic listening samples in textbook writing only recently. In both studies, the authors point out that in order to help language learners develop the ability to comprehend and communicate effectively in authentic situations, teachers need to expose learners to 'authentic' listening experience through carefully selected authentic texts (Gilmore, 2004; Porter & Roberts, 1981).

Authentic texts can give language learners the opportunity to experience the target language as it is used outside the classroom. In this sense, they are usually regarded as essentially more interesting or stimulating than contrived materials (Field, 1997; Guariento & Morley, 2001; Lee, 1995; Porter & Roberts, 1981). However, Peacock (1997) states that this claim has not been ‘sufficiently tested’ at all (see also Gilmore, 2007b). Indeed, Peacock (1996, 1997) observed that, in his study, learners were more motivated by the authentic materials, particularly as measured by on-task behaviour in the classroom; however, it was not because those materials were more interesting. The author claims that, for the learners who participated in his research, interest in the materials used in the classroom was ‘quite separate as a component of motivation from levels of attention or action’ in the classroom tasks (1997, p.152).

Davies (1997) also warns us about the ‘misguided assumption’ that ‘authentic materials ... have the qualities of a magic formula, whereby their mere presence will guarantee faster and more effective learning’ in advanced language classrooms. The author claims that ‘well-structured’ textbooks should not be abandoned merely for the sake of using ‘authentic’ materials that ‘serve a basically lexical syllabus’ (p.11). Indeed, the ‘interesting’ and ‘captivating’ sides of authentic materials may ‘lose their appeal quite rapidly’ and the learning process may become boring and somewhat demotivating, especially when these materials are found difficult or old-fashioned by learners (Davies, 1997; Duda & Tyne, 2010).

Stating that the concept of authenticity is described vaguely in the field of ELT and challenging the two common assumptions about it (i.e. ‘authentic language is best, authentic language is primarily practical and purposeful, focused upon meaning



rather than form'), Cook (1997) emphasises that authenticity is actually 'playful, in the sense of being focused upon form and fiction rather than on meaning and reality' (p.224). Therefore, one should not assume that authentic input naturally provides 'real' and meaning-focused communication. Exposing learners to authentic texts only with this assumption may result in ineffective and unproductive process of language learning. Cook (1997) also addresses the complexity of language learning and underlines that it is 'sometimes play, sometimes for real, sometimes form-focused, and sometimes meaning-focused, sometimes fiction and sometimes fact' (p.231). In fact, one of the requirements of effective language teaching is that 'rich and varied' texts (e.g. with different styles, modes, mediums and purposes) should be presented in the classroom to focus on both form and meaning (Wringe, 1986; Tomlinson, 1998). Such input can provide an invaluable source for learners about 'the language in use at the given moment and in a particular context of situation: about register, stylistic choices and, directly or indirectly, about attitudes to English usage' (Davies, 1997, p.8).

At lower proficiency levels, learners may find authentic texts with excessively complex content quite challenging and demotivating. However, Badger and MacDonald (2010) claim that it may not be very accurate to regard authentic texts as essentially providing language input that is too difficult for all learners. As one expects, levels of difficulty of texts and interpretation of text properties may vary from one learner to another. Moreover, the role of language teachers in the process of selecting and presenting the 'authentic' texts in the classroom should not be overlooked in the issue of ease/difficulty. Here, when learners find authentic texts difficult, teachers usually have two options: they can either simplify the texts, which

may be a problematic and questionable process in terms of the ‘originality’ of these texts, or design teaching tasks according to learners’ interests and proficiency levels (Badger & MacDonald, 2010; Guariento & Morley, 2001). Maingay (1980) also claims that teachers can design classroom activities according to learners’ proficiency levels while they pay attention to textual features (i.e. references to specific cultural knowledge, layout and graphics) at the same time. Likewise, Field (1997) emphasises that it is usually both the language input itself and the task in which the input is used that determine ‘ease or difficulty’ for learners (p.49).

In brief, the perceived difficulty level affects learners’ interests and involvement in authentic texts. There are also other factors that might have an impact upon learners’ engagement with these texts. For example, through a questionnaire-based survey, Chavez (1998) investigates how various factors influence learners’ perceptions of authenticity. The research shows that not only learners’ demographic variables (e.g. age, gender, level of proficiency) but also factors such as ‘immediacy, currency, native inception, native reception or source authenticity’ have impacts on how learners grade authenticity of texts and situations. According to her research, there are positive correlations in general between ‘perceived authenticity’ and ‘contributions to language learning’ in all demographic groups (of level, age, gender, previous experience, major etc.). That is, the more authentic the language learning materials appear to learners, the more useful they are regarded in language learning. The most distinctive point Chavez (1998) reveals is that although individual factors (e.g. currency, being produced by native speakers or for native speakers, setting, source and medium) influence the perception of authenticity, ‘the specific effects of these factors vary by the number and nature of other authenticity factors’ and by the

aspect on which learners grade the given materials and situations (e.g. anxiety/enjoyment, ease/difficulty, contributions to learning) (p.23-25).

The discussion around authenticity, particularly text authenticity, becomes more complicated recently as the concept encompasses electronically stored text collection in corpora as well (Mishan, 2005) and as ELT practitioners, publishers and researchers are concerned with ‘how far the content of textbooks corresponds with the findings of corpus linguistics’ (Holliday, 2005, p.104).

### **2.3.1. Authenticity, text and corpus**

In a basic sense, a corpus is defined as a collection of ‘authentic’ language samples that represents how language is ‘actually’ used in a community (Richards & Schmidt, 2010; Tomlinson, 1998). Although the use of corpus linguistics in language education results in improvements in textbooks and dictionaries, it might promote the label of ‘real English’ as ‘a popular way of marketing reference materials’ (Thornbury, 2006, p.21).

Another issue is indeed how authentic a corpus can be. Although a corpus consists of real written/spoken texts, its authenticity becomes questionable when its contents have been ‘transplanted from their original medium and incorporated into another’ (Mishan, 2004, p.220; see also Duda & Tyne, 2010). Particularly in a text-based definition of authenticity, the core aspect of authenticity can be regarded as ‘context’ because texts are created for specific purposes in a particular set of contextual conditions. However, when transferred from their original sources to electronic corpora, ‘physical appearance, presence and reality’ of texts are often overlooked (Mishan, 2004; 2005). As a resolution to this problem, Mishan (2004) suggests that

we should use appropriate methodologies through which we can ‘create conditions that enable learners to authenticate the corpus data’ (p.222). Focusing on the process of authentication rather than the authenticity of the input, Mishan (2004; 2005) states that a data-driven learning approach can involve learners in authentic tasks, thus promote an authentic learning experience through using corpora.

The questions of what an authentic text is (i.e. text authenticity) as well as for whom (i.e. learner authenticity) and for what purposes it is authentic (i.e. task authenticity) are closely related to each other. Arnold (1991) explicitly underlines that using authentic texts in the language classroom does not guarantee that the process and outcome of language learning will be authentic as well. That is, it may not be possible to claim whether a text is authentic or not by merely looking at its overall purpose or quality because language learners interpret and evaluate the text according to their own interests, knowledge and previous experience both as a member of the classroom and of a broader social context. Since the interaction between a text and a reader/user can lead to authentic communication, it is not an easy task to grade text authenticity without paying attention to the dynamic relationship between text, task, learner, teacher and the learning environment. The following sections will focus on how the literature presents this interaction between learners, teachers and texts through classroom tasks.

#### **2.4. Authenticity and interaction**

As noted in the previous sections, several scholars underline that the term ‘authenticity’ is not limited to the text itself, but it involves learners’ interpretations of given texts, purposes and designs of teaching tasks within particular contextual conditions, which is often guided by language teachers’ instructions. Thus, the

current description of authenticity requires paying close attention to the interaction among language, learners, teachers and other contextual components (Shomoossi & Ketabi, 2007; 2008). This engenders authenticity in ELT as a multifaceted concept, which can involve both text (i.e. a content, product) and the interaction between text and the language user/learner (i.e. process). Authentic texts, therefore, do not always bring authentic communication directly into the language classroom (see Abdul-Kareem, 1999; Arnold, 1991; Breen, 1985a; Lee, 1995; MacDonald et al., 2006). It is also claimed that authenticity can be achieved only if learners are given the opportunity of experiencing and interpreting authentic texts within ‘authentic interaction’ that essentially serves their learning purposes (Arnold, 1991; Duda & Tyne, 2010; Lee, 1995). The following sub-sections include the review of literature on authenticity related to language learners, classroom tasks and teachers.

#### **2.4.1. Authenticity and learner**

Regarding learner authenticity as a defining type of the authenticity in ELT, Lee (1995) claims that four demands of authenticity that Breen (1985a) proposed are closely interrelated and they all ‘contribute to the quality of learner authenticity’ (p.325). In order to achieve learner authenticity, texts are supposed to be interpreted and accepted by learners not only appropriately (see Widdowson, 1979, Little, 1997) but also with positive perceptions (Lee, 1999; Nunan, 1988). Moreover, learners should be encouraged to see authentic inputs as ‘communicative events’ related to their interests and goals rather than merely examples of target language (Little et al., 1989). Thus, the key demand for authenticity is to turn texts into ‘learner-authentic’ ones (Lee, 1995, p.325), which are particularly learner-centred in a sense that they address learners’ interests, needs and expectations and they are realised by learners as related and appropriate to the classroom context. Although this discussion in the

literature is usually developed around ‘authentic’ texts and learners’ responses to these texts, I believe that it should also involve learners’ engagement with and responses to any texts produced and/or presented in the classroom.

Language learners are not ‘empty vessels’; they bring their attitudes, expectations and previous knowledge into classroom, and they are capable of making distinctions between language learning and language use processes (Taylor, 1994). Within their frames of reference and previous knowledge, language learners may recontextualise an inauthentic text as authentic or vice versa (Breen, 1985a; Lee, 1995). In other words, language learners are the human aspect of authenticity in the classroom who can authenticate a text, or a learning experience in general, through a process of engagement in the learning environment.

Breen (1985a) explicitly states that language teachers ‘should be willing to welcome into the classroom any texts which will serve the primary purpose of helping the learner to develop authentic interpretations’ (p.63). The authentic interpretation that language learners develop through their engagement usually depends on the ability of the learners to respond ‘appropriately’ to the purposes of texts. However, when texts are introduced to the learners, it should be borne in mind, or even highlighted, that texts are usually produced with different functions and purposes. In addition to the primary purposes of these texts in ‘real’ world, teachers should draw learners’ attention to the purposes of the use of these texts in the classroom (e.g. their pedagogical functions).

Kumaravadivelu (1991; 1994; 2003) lists learners' earlier knowledge and experiences of classroom culture and target language culture among the possible reasons for 'perceptual mismatch' between how learners interpret the given texts and tasks and what teachers want to teach through these texts. Therefore, it should also be borne in mind that learners interpret the texts through their own social and (inter)cultural frames of reference to the process of understanding. Insisting on building a literal correspondence between learners' interpretation and text producer's intention within target language conventions (see Widdowson 1979; 1990) may lead to 'a poverty of interpretation' and influence 'the imaginative and creative potential of the learner' negatively (MacDonald et al., 2006, p.255).

#### **2.4.2. Authenticity and task**

In order to promote learner authenticity and help learners go beyond the cliché of 'responding to the given texts appropriately', well-designed and well-performed classroom tasks are as important as the text selection (Arnold, 1991; Lee, 1995; Porter and Roberts, 1981; Wringe, 1989). In this study, the term 'task' refers to any classroom activities that require learners' social and/or cognitive engagement and that facilitate the process of language learning. To achieve authenticity in classroom tasks, according to Nunan (1989), tasks should be designed and performed carefully in a way that reflects the 'real world' communication. Furthermore, it is necessary to take learners' goals, interests, previous knowledge and possible ways of interpretation into account when designing relevant and appropriate classroom tasks (Oğuz & Bahar, 2008; Hedge, 2000).

In the literature, it is frequently emphasised that classroom tasks can be authentic only when they reflect real-world conditions and language use outside the classroom

(Ellis, 2003; Tomlinson, 1998; Wringe, 1989). In terms of language testing and task-based learning, authenticity is usually discussed within two types as ‘situational authenticity’ and ‘interactional authenticity’ (Bachman, 1990; Ellis, 2003). While the former addresses the correspondence between the classroom task and ‘real world’ tasks (i.e. relation to the learners’ daily life activities), the latter refers to learners’ communication in interactions while performing the tasks (Ellis, 2003). However, although presenting various degrees of authenticity, Brown (2011) claims that ‘there is probably no such thing as real task authenticity’ since classroom tasks are often designed and performed with language learning purposes rather than ‘real’ communication. To him, the most authentic task would be the one that learners have to carry out outside the classroom without the language instructor (*ibid.*, p.142). Wringe (1989), on the other hand, states that the concern for task authenticity ‘should not be exaggerated to the point of absurdity’ (p.44), that is, through appropriate and well-designed classroom tasks, using a real restaurant menu (i.e. ‘genuine’ input) and ordering a meal without actually going to a restaurant may well be very useful and authentic for learners. In addition, Wringe (1989) underlines that the important condition here is to focus on learners’ performance and actions instead of merely on their responses as ‘answers for teachers to mark’ (p.45).

Task authenticity can be considered as a prerequisite for achieving learner authenticity since ‘authentic’ input may not always be enough to fulfil the communicative goals and to foster authentic learning experience in the classroom (see Guariento and Morley, 2001). According to Oğuz and Bahar (2008), an authentic learning environment naturally promotes learners’ creativity, awareness and autonomy by encouraging them to work on ‘realistic problems, participate in



activities that solve real-life problems or create products that have real-life purposes’ (p.329). Hence, language teachers need to pay attention not only to the process of designing and performing an effective type of task but also to possible outcomes of them (Porter and Roberts, 1981). The lack of attention to this issue may lead to presenting texts through ‘inauthentic’ means in the classroom. For instance, using authentic texts merely through traditional types of classroom exercises might extremely limit the variety of samples of ‘real’ language use that learners need to experience. If the goal of the language classroom is to help learners use their learned language skills in ‘the world outside’ effectively, the classroom tasks should be designed appropriately carrying both pedagogical and communicative functions. In addition, ‘authentic tasks’ should draw learners’ attention to both linguistic and socio-cultural components of the text.

Focusing on the purpose and the presentation of texts in the language classroom, Breen (1985a) makes a distinction between ‘authentic communication tasks’ and ‘authentic language learning tasks’ (p.64). The author claims that task authenticity can be achieved when the tasks carried out in language classrooms cover both communicative and pedagogical purposes simultaneously. That is, authentic tasks should aim at encouraging language learners not only ‘to communicative ideas and meanings’ but also to ‘meta-communicate about the language’ and the process of language learning (Breen, 1985, p.66). For example, the authenticity of a classroom task can be discussed through the extent to which it involves learners in authentic engagement with texts and with other learners in the classroom as well as the extent to which it raises learners’ awareness of the purpose and process of language learning.

Task authenticity, in fact, is not a simple and explicit issue as one assumes. Arnold (1991) summarises the interactional process in the language classroom as follows: the materials, first, need to be related to the particular goals of language learners. Second, the tasks should provide a change for learners to engage with authentic interaction in which learners are encouraged to give authentic responses instead of memorising drills and simply acting out a role. Third, participants and relationships between them (e.g. status) in the tasks need to be authentic as well, which means language learners should be given authentic roles according to their main goals. Finally, authentic outputs of the tasks can be used as authentic inputs of a new task, thus linkage of input and output in authenticity should be promoted (*ibid.*).

Guariento and Morley (2001) discuss how to apply the concept of authenticity to classroom tasks in practice by presenting four ‘schools of thought’ on task authenticity: (1) authenticity through a genuine purpose, (2) authenticity through real world targets, (3) authenticity through classroom interaction and (4) authenticity through engagement. Although the authors make distinctions between each of these four types by pointing out the lack of common ground among them, they claim that language teachers can actually design a classroom ‘in which the four can operate in conjunction’ (p.351). The authors also state that language teachers need to combine text and task aspects of authenticity together within carefully prepared and presented tasks in order to achieve authenticity in the language classroom.

Promoting the concept of authenticity as an ongoing process (i.e. authentication) rather than ‘an attribute that may or may not be present (in texts, individuals or activities)’, Wee (2008) states that we can embrace a ‘performance-based’

orientation on authenticity (p.268). In this way, we can link text- and task-based authenticity with 'self-based authenticity' in language learning experience, which also continues outside the classroom. Furthermore, this approach to authenticity helps us to observe individual responses to and interpretation of the language learning process in the classroom.

#### **2.4.2.1. Varied interpretations of classroom tasks**

Language lessons are 'instances of collective interaction' that are co-constructed by the participants simultaneously involved in the management and practice of interaction in the classroom. Students and teachers may have different interpretations and perceptions and this can both result in and result from different interactive work they carry out in the classroom (Allwright, 1984). Coughlan and Duff (1994) state that 'even with a single, relatively controlled task, a range of discourse types may result from subjects' multiple interpretations of that task ... their attempt to make [the task] a more interesting one, making comparisons to personal experience, playing language games and so on' (p.185). In fact, even when the structure of a task (e.g. textbook exercise) and the context in which that task is carried out appear to be same, people's interpretations and (re)conceptualisation of the task would be quite different. Thus, it would be natural to expect different outcomes by different participants with the same task.

In 'activity theory', which focuses on socially and culturally constructed human behaviour in context, a task can be composed of three distinguished levels: (1) the level of motivation (i.e. why the action takes place), (2) the level of action/goal (i.e. what is being done) and (3) the level of conditions (i.e. the actual doing) (Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). Lantolf (2000) claims that while activities can be

easily observed in particular spatial and temporal conditions, it is not always easy to observe the underlying motives and perceived goals of those activities. As a result, ‘the same observable activity can be linked to different goals and motives and different concrete activities can be linked to the same motives and goals’ by the people (Ellis, 2003; Lantolf, 2000, p.8).

In the classroom context, these varied interpretations should be recognised in order to develop a better understanding about the process of language learning. According to van Lier (1996), inauthentic discourse may happen when participants’ various interpretations and language uses are in conflict and when ‘this conflict is either ignored or not successfully repaired’ (p.127). Here, the teacher has an important role in identifying learners’ motives and interpretations as well as acknowledging potential conflicts between interpretation and intentions.

#### **2.4.3. Authenticity and teacher**

Language teachers’ ‘authenticating’ efforts and strategies in selecting texts, designing classroom tasks and promoting learners’ appropriate and positive responses and interpretation, thus in fostering meaningful and authentic learning environment in the classroom, have been highlighted in the related literature (Joy, 2011; Lee, 1995; Shomoossi & Ketabi, 2007, 2008). Indeed, language teachers have a significant role in the process of fostering authenticity in language classrooms and if they are equipped with the awareness of the multi-dimensional nature of authenticity, they can guide and promote the process of authentication effectively. Furthermore, Glatthorn (1975) states that ‘it is the teacher as person who ultimately makes a difference’ (p.37) and he identifies four interrelated elements of authenticity in the classroom as authentic awareness (i.e. developing a sense of who we are and

what we are becoming), authentic relationships (i.e. ‘caring’ as an authentic classroom relationship), authentic language (i.e. speaking simply and truly) and authentic action (i.e. finding our own becoming in the profession we have chosen).

According to Jakobovits (1982), the teacher should take social and interpersonal aspects of culture-learning and classroom variables into consideration to create an effective community-classroom environment (p.28), in which authentic language learning is promoted for ‘achieving communicative competence’ (p.11). Moreover, Jakobovits (1982) states that in authentic language teaching, the language teacher can ‘integrate himself or herself’ in the process (p.21) and pay close attention to the process and results of ‘the ontology in [his/her] growth and activities’ (p.25). Here, as Cooper (1983) claims, the teacher not only questions and develops his/her own beliefs, values and ideologies but also provides guidance for learners to develop their beliefs and values, thus their authenticity both in individual and (inter)cultural senses.

Studies that have investigated what ‘authentic’ refers to in philosophical and educational literature and for teachers from different disciplines demonstrated that authenticity in teaching involves different features (Cranton & Carusetta, 2004; Kreber, Klampfleitner, McCune, Bayne and Knottenbelt, 2007; Kreber, 2010).

Cranton & Carusetta, 2004	Kreber 2010
<i>Self</i> (understanding of oneself both as a teacher and a person)	<i>Being sincere, candid and honest</i>
<i>Other</i> (awareness of students as human-beings in the teaching and learning environment)	<i>Being true to oneself</i> (in an individualisation or existentialist sense)
<i>Relationship</i> (awareness of the relationship between teacher and student)	<i>Being true to oneself</i> (in a critical social theory sense)
<i>Context</i> (awareness of the role / influence of the context)	<i>Acting in the important interest of learners</i>
<i>Critical reflection</i> (being critical and engaging in critical reflection on each of the previous categories)	<i>Care</i> for the subject, students and interest in engaging students with the subject around ideas that matter
	<i>A process of becoming</i> (through critical reflection)

Table 2.1. Features of authenticity in teaching (teacher)

The features listed in the Table 2.1 mainly present an existentialist view of authenticity and review the current understanding of the existing literature on teacher identity, agency and efficiency through the lens of ‘authenticity’ (Cranton & Carusetta, 2004; Kreber, 2010). Teachers need to consider some issues such as which aspects of the texts they want to bring into the classroom and how they will present those aspects while promoting learners’ autonomy and self-determination at the same time. In effect, this process also involves the teacher’s care for the subject matter and creating the conditions that allow students to engage in genuine dialogues around ideas that matter, thus ‘furthering their learning and development’ (Kreber et al., 2007, p.38). In this way, authenticity can become an invaluable tool for language teachers to perform their pedagogic decisions effectively by establishing and modifying classroom tasks that are suitable for learners’ needs, levels, purposes and socialisation processes (Badger & MacDonald, 2010). Indeed, as van Lier (1996) underlines, ‘it is reasonable to suggest that a teacher’s authenticity may stimulate authenticity in the students as well’ (p.128).

Examining the criterion of authenticity within the context of EAP by using Halliday's conceptions of field, tenor and mode (1978), MacDonald et al. (2000) suggest that language teachers should take learners' expectations, interests, needs and previous experiences into consideration. Furthermore, they can involve language learners in the certain points of the process of text selection and task design to strengthen the relation between text, task and learner authenticity (Breen, 1985a, p.63), or they can design a task in a way that gives learners a space to have some interaction with the text producer in order to make the text presentation more interesting and motivating for learners (*ibid.*, p.265).

All in all, language teachers need to reflect on their decisions about text selections and task designs in specific classroom contexts, and try to understand the structure of classroom discourse in a broader educational context, regarding their learners as active participants who are able to make their own decisions and develop 'appropriate' responses to the classroom interaction when they are given the opportunity (see Breen, 1985b; Holliday, 1999; Taylor, 1994).

## **2.5. Authenticity and culture**

In the previous sections (Sections 2.3 and 2.4), I have addressed text, task, learner and teacher dimensions of authenticity in ELT and highlighted that authenticity is not a unique quality of an individual dimension but a result of interaction between them. This interaction does not take place in a vacuum but it occurs in a context. In order to build a coherent presentation of the relationship between context and authenticity, I will present the relevant literature under the term 'culture' and its place in the discussion of authenticity in ELT.

Holliday (1999) suggests that the term 'culture' should be revisited in applied linguistics in terms of whether it refers to certain ethnic and (inter)national entities (i.e. large culture) or to 'small cohesive groupings' regardless of prescribed ethnic and national entities (i.e. small culture). The author claims that the large culture paradigm, which is often addressed in applied linguistics, 'relates to the essential differences between ethnic, national and international entities' and somewhat leads to stereotypes of these entities (e.g. British culture, Western culture), thus it is essentialist and 'culturist' (p.240). In addition to causing 'reductionist overgeneralization', the essentialist large culture approach may cause 'otherisation' of foreign language educators and learners as well. This situation is addressed below in the discussion of authenticity in terms of local culture of learners and target language culture. According to Holliday (1999), the paradigm of small culture, however, is non-essentialist because it mainly relies on 'any cohesive social grouping with no necessary subordination to large cultures' (p.240).

As a social group with the composite of cohesive behaviours within itself through which members can 'make sense of and operate meaningfully' within particular situations, the language classroom can be seen as a sample of small cultures (Holliday, 1999, p.248). Besides, in the educational system, the classroom is a part of 'a complex of interrelated and overlapping cultures of different dimensions' such as student culture, school culture, academic culture and so on (Holliday, 1994, p.28). In the present study, the relationship between authenticity and culture will be discussed through the references to the notions of small culture (i.e. authenticity and classroom context) and large culture (i.e. learners' local culture, target language culture and intercultural representations and interpretations).



### **2.5.1. Authenticity and small culture**

The classroom may be a relatively inefficient environment for the methodical mastery of a language system, just as it is limited in providing opportunities for real world communication in a new language. But the classroom has its own communicative potential and its own authentic metacommunicative purpose. It can be a particular social context for the intensification of the cultural experience of learning. (Breen, 1985b, p.154)

The purpose of a language classroom is to help learners not only to communicate about new knowledge but also to communicate in a new language (Breen, 1985a; 1985b; Legutke & Thomas, 1991; Little, 1997). In this sense, language classrooms are special social environments in the educational field and it can be claimed that the most authentic language classroom situation is one that enables learners to communicate and negotiate about the content of the lesson and their language learning experiences within the actual social context of the classroom (Breen, 1985a; Baumgratz-Gangl, 1991). For example, according to Breen (1985a), one of the most authentic language classroom environments is the one in which learners can communicate about ‘how best to learn to communicate’ in the target language (p.68). Hence, learners can acknowledge ‘the pragmatic and cultural value of what they learn’ (Baumgratz-Gangl, 1991, p.235). However, according to Guariento and Morley (2001), the process of creating the conditions for such an environment might be very difficult, but not impossible, to achieve, especially in the case of language learners with low-level proficiency (p.351).

Recognising the fact that social reality of language learning and discourse of language classes are constructed by teachers and learners together, Breen (1985b) describes classrooms as ‘coral gardens’ which encompass both individual and social factors within its complex multiplicity. According to Breen (1985b), we need to see

and investigate the language classroom as ‘a genuine culture’ where ‘subjective realities are worked out, changed and maintained’ while on the surface it looks like ‘a gathering of people with an assumed common purpose’ (p.142). In other words, describing classrooms as ‘coral gardens’, we imply that ‘more is going on between people than the transfer of knowledge and skills between the members of the classroom group’ (Holliday, 1994, p.31). Here, two dimensions of learners’ and teachers’ experiences in the classroom can be listed as ‘individual-subjective experience’ (with personal purposes and interpretations) and ‘collective-intersubjective experience’ (with shared definitions, conventions and engagements) (Breen, 1985b, p.140). Indeed, inspired by this description of classroom experience, I adopt a model designed in the social constructivist approach to illustrate the dimensions of authenticity in the language classroom (see Chapter 3).

Breen (1985b) also highlights that the culture of language classrooms can be ‘more of a revelation’ (p.153) and ‘will be a world other than the sum of the individual worlds within it’ (p.149). When he summarises the essential features of this culture, he states that this particular culture is (1) interactive, (2) differentiated, (3) collective, (4) highly normative, (5) asymmetrical, (6) inherently conservative, (7) jointly constructed and (8) immediately significant (p.143-149). In fact, all these features directly affect the nature of authentic language learning experience in the classroom. Moreover, it is possible to claim that it is indeed the human actor’s engagement and attempts in the context that define these specific features (Breen, 1985b; Hung & Chen, 2007). Hence, there is a mutual relationship between learners’ and teachers’ attempts to (co)construct an authentic experience and the specific features of classroom culture.

In fact, the language classroom can be regarded as ‘a place with its own legitimacy’ rather than an artificial context (Badger & MacDonald, 2010, p.581). This context encompasses both language learning and language using and most language learners are already aware of the special characteristics of this social context. In this sense, the classroom context provides the special conditions for ‘authenticity’ as the legitimate ‘point of origin’ of the texts and interaction produced and used in the classroom when they facilitate purposeful and relevant communicative and/or pedagogical outcomes and involvement (see, MacDonald et al., 2006; Taylor, 1994, van Lier, 1988).

However, Widdowson (1990) claims that if we consider inauthentic language use as authentic language-learning behaviour only because it occurs in the classroom, then we can describe ‘anything that goes on in the classroom, including mechanistic pattern practice’ as authentic (p.46). At this point, van Lier (1996) asks his rhetorical question: ‘Do we have to choose between classroom authenticity and ‘real world’ authenticity?’ (p.131). In fact, van Lier explicitly states that ‘the classroom should be respected in itself as the place where people go to learn language and, therefore, its authenticity should not be compared to authenticity in other places’ (Cots & Tuson, 1994, p.53). At this point, MacDonald et al. (2006) underline that while recognising the language classroom as a special social environment in terms of authenticity, we should not neglect the primary context of the non-pedagogical texts we bring into the classroom and their discursive patterns. Focusing merely on pedagogical functions may lead to ‘a poverty of context’ and of communication (*ibid.*, p.256). In order to minimise possible conflicts here, it is also possible to consider pedagogic authenticity and ‘real world’ authenticity as two ends of a continuum.

Discussing different dimensions of authenticity and addressing the issue of using authentic materials to foster motivation, involvement and language acquisition, Pinner (2013; 2014a; 2014b) also suggests that we should describe authenticity within a continuum rather than with a single and fixed definition. His continuum includes two axes: contextual and social. While the former addresses the different contexts (i.e. classroom context and ‘real’ context), the latter addresses various degrees of authenticity in terms of personal engagement and relevance (e.g. relevant to user/learner and target language use community). In fact, Pinner (2013; 2014a; 2014b) claims that the continuum approach can be used to grade the ‘authenticity’ of materials, tasks and language in use, which are seen as the distinct, ‘yet overlapping and interacting’ domains of authenticity, according to ‘relevance and context of use.’ However, although Pinner (2014b) mentions that ‘a position on one of the axes does not exclude the existence of the other’ and ‘each aspect has a relationship and possible overlap with the others’ (p.26), the two-ended layout of the continuum, its inherent nature as a ‘continuum’ and its function as a tool to validate the various dimensions of authenticity creates possible vagueness and dichotomy between the aspects on the axes (e.g. individual, classroom vs. community, real world).

### **2.5.2. Authenticity and large culture**

While I have addressed the issues related to authenticity and small culture (i.e. language classroom context) in the previous section, I will present the relationship between authenticity and large culture in this section. In the relevant literature, the discussion about authenticity and large culture has been taken place mainly around the role of authentic texts as tools to introduce the cultural conventions in which they have been produced, thus in a rather essentialist way. For example, Jakobovits (1982) describes ‘the real and pragmatic meaning of authenticity’ in ELT as

providing ‘culture-simulation techniques’ through which [target] culture, thus language, can be studied and acquired effectively. If they are not carefully selected and presented, the ‘authentic’ texts from particular cultures may provide inadequate and/or inaccurate information for learners from other cultures (Feng and Byram, 2002; Nostrand, 1989). In order to prevent possible misunderstandings about texts and culture, these texts should be presented with direct reference to their ‘authentic’ contexts from which they have been taken (Nostrand, 1989, p.49). For example, Nostrand (1989) states that although proverbs are regarded as examples of ‘authentic’ texts, they may not express their authentic meanings unless presented in a context that explicitly refers to the situation where they are used appropriately (p.50). That is, language learners need to be given adequate information about the original context in order to realise the meaning of authentic texts and develop cultural competence, thus making these texts authentic for themselves.

In most cases, the learner’s interpretation of the text is limited to his/her own cultural framework even though the primary context of the text is provided. Due to the fact that the learner’s mind is ‘already an integrated cultural system’, any texts presented are likely to ‘appear against a false context’ (Nostrand, 1989, p.51). Thus, learners may label the textual and cultural samples as ‘completely alien’. Nostrand (1989) points out that if language teachers want learners to develop a positive and critical understanding for a new culture, they should attempt to ‘help learners feel the coherence of the foreign way of life and to see the concrete example in the light of the abstract matrix which shows its authentic meaning’ (p.51). I believe that teachers can build this coherence with learners’ existing frameworks and experiences of the local culture(s) as well.

Traditionally, the primary context of ‘authentic’ texts is considered merely as the target language culture, particularly from a bi-cultural perspective in ELT (see Little et al., 1989; Nostrand, 1989). Furthermore, Alptekin (1993) argues that in ELT market, authentic texts are usually produced by native speakers of English who tend to (1) implicitly or explicitly display their own cultural and social views, values and attitudes in materials and (2) be reluctant to go beyond their own cultural framework and include ‘other’ cultures. As a result, materials tend to promote native speakers’ culture and language use as an ideal and ultimate goal of language learning. In this respect, authentic language which is real for native speakers is not always authentic and real for foreign/second language learners. Language learners, however, are not insiders, but outsiders of the target language communities. Therefore, as mentioned before, it may not be possible for learners to authenticate a text which is culturally loaded and context-specific (Widdowson, 1994, 1996, 1998). Widdowson explicitly states that ‘reality’ created by a specific language user community (i.e. native speakers) is ‘non-transferable’ (1994, p.386) and it ‘does not travel with the text’ (1998, p.711). In other words, texts are usually considered ‘authentic’ because of their appropriateness for the contextual and cultural conditions in which they are produced or primarily used.

Kumaravadivelu (1994) claims that the traditional descriptions of authenticity and culture presented in language teaching do not often go beyond raising awareness of the native speakers’ culture, and this situation, indeed, provides ‘only a limited and limiting view of cultural consciousness’ for learners (p.41). Claiming that current pedagogic models for language classrooms which are mainly designed according to ‘native-speaker-based notions of communicative competence’ are not valid, realistic

and effective in today's world where English is used as an international language, Alptekin (2002) also draws attention to an urgent need for developing a new pedagogic model which aims at developing learners' intercultural communicative competence (p.57). The author urges that a new pedagogic model should present successful bilingual language users of English as pedagogic models rather than native-speakers, and provide learners with appropriate materials and instruction that cover both local and global contexts with participants from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds (p.63). In fact, language learners can become 'successful and intercultural individuals who are able to function well in both local and intercultural settings' only when intercultural communicative competence is explicitly promoted in language instruction (Alptekin, 2002, p.63).

Since using English as a means of communication in international settings raises questions about authenticity such as whose words and meanings and whose culture comprise authentic language (see Gilmore, 2007b; Kramsch, 1998; Kramsch & Sullivan, 1996; MacDonald et al., 2006; Seargeant, 2005), Kramsch and Sullivan (1996) propose using and promoting 'appropriate language' rather than 'authentic language' in ELT pedagogy. According to the authors, focusing on the appropriateness instead of on authenticity will be more fruitful for ELT mainly because appropriateness can provide flexibility and efficiency within a local context and address global issues at the same time. Moreover, 'appropriation' can give learners a chance to 'adopt and adapt' a foreign language and culture according to their needs and interests, whereas 'authenticity' may limit language samples within the framework of native speakers' contextual conventions and 'devalue learners own authentic selves as learners' (Kramsch 1998, p.81). In short, a pedagogy that

combines ‘global appropriacy and local appropriation’ should be embraced in language education (Kramsch and Sullivan, 1996, p.199) rather than native-speaker-based conceptualisation of authenticity.

Kramsch and Sullivan (1996) also describe the language classroom as a special culture and state that authenticity, in fact, is not always attributed to texts limited to a particular culture or group of language users, but it refers to the ‘interaction between classroom participants’ within a broader framework of social and cultural relations (p.201). According to the authors, English language learners can become successful language users not only in local contexts but also in intercultural settings through appropriate pedagogy, which helps them ‘feel at home in both international and national cultures’ (*ibid.*, p.211). As Shommoosi & Ketabi (2008) underlines, one of the main goals of ELT is to develop intercultural communicative competence of language learners. Therefore, focusing merely on native speakers’ norms should not be regarded as a requirement for ‘authentication process’ any longer. In fact, as Gilmore (2007b) claims, the spread of English as an international language has remarkably ‘complicated the issue of teaching the language and the concept of authenticity in the process’ (p.103).

Defining ‘authenticity’ as a concept of pragmatic appropriateness, Shomoossi & Ketabi (2007; 2008) state that not only language educators, but also curriculum designers and policy makers should regard authenticity within the demands of English as an international language. That is, appropriate and relevant materials and activities should be introduced in language teaching process. Shomoossi and Ketabi (2007; 2008) also state that new approaches in materials development should not



only involve interactions between users of different native languages in international contexts but also explicitly address the local context shaped by the interaction between existing participants. Moreover, the authors claim that the most useful resource for promoting authentic interaction is the language learners themselves, especially the ones who have experienced target language use in different contexts and tasks.

MacDonald et al. (2006) also underline that language learners' 'experience of being and becoming' within intercultural contexts should be addressed explicitly in language education (p.256). To achieve this, we need to develop a conceptualisation that does not put emphasis on 'objectification' of authenticity as something fixed and rigid, but on 'subjectification' of the term (p.260). Indeed, both learners and teachers bring their own educational, social and cultural expectations, values and ways of understanding to the classroom. These previous experiences and the position of English as a means of international communication in today's world determine the overall goal of language education and may force 'bottom-up' changes in the current practices 'in ways unintended and unexpected by policy planners, curriculum designers or textbooks producers' (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, p.543). Therefore, in order to develop appropriate teaching materials, ways of assessment and criteria for target competence, language educators and materials producers should pay attention to learners' and teachers' expectations and existing cultural frameworks while presenting the new 'unfamiliar' culture(s) of the target language. Furthermore, as Alptekin (1993) underlines, English can be regarded as a language 'which is not always inextricably tied to one particular culture' (p.140). Therefore English language teaching and cultural presentation may well embrace the general cultural

components of the international English language (e.g. pop culture, travel culture) and/or 'the indigenised varieties of English' (e.g. Indian English) as well as learners' local culture (p.142). Today's intercultural communicative events indeed require learners to experience such a cultural process in order to become successful language users.

Challenging traditional beliefs and definitions associated with the notion of authenticity in ELT, Feng and Byram (2002) also state that language teaching materials, particularly textbooks, should refer to authenticity in terms of developing general and intercultural communicative competence of learners (p.58). Although ELT scholars have been questioning the term for many years, the main discussion on authenticity has shifted from the relationship between (target) language authenticity, communicative competence and (target) cultural authenticity to the notion of authenticity as a tool for developing intercultural communicative competence (p.60). That is, focusing on intercultural communication brings another perspective on examining how authenticity is framed in textbooks (Feng & Byram, 2002) and more broadly in language classrooms.

According to Feng and Byram (2002), textbook analysis today should focus on mutual representations of both target and local cultures in textbooks, through which learners are encouraged to develop critical lenses to interpret intercultural contents successfully. Therefore, it should involve four interwoven dimensions: (1) intercultural representation, (2) mediation of intention and interpretation, (3) balance of diachrony and synchrony and image representations, and (4) principles of contrivance. The authors also stress that the (inter)cultural content should cover how

target culture and learners' native culture are interpreted both by 'natural' members of those cultures and by others. In this way, it is aimed at turning language learners into 'intercultural speakers' (Kramsch, 1998). When learners are given opportunity to compare the 'intended meaning' with the 'interpreted meaning', they can develop their own understanding of 'the shared linguistic and rhetorical conventions of the target language' as well as make connections between their own native culture and communicative conventions and those of others (Feng & Byram, 2002, p.64).

Another issue about presentation of culture is that culture(s) as a part of representative content in the course materials needs to be introduced as it is 'lived and talked about by 'real' people' (Byram & Esarte-Sarries as cited in Feng & Byram, 2002, p.60). Moreover, text producers' viewpoints and the distinctive aspects of different cultures should be presented within a clear and balanced framework. Feng and Byram (2002) also state that the representations used in textbooks may involve stereotypes because stereotypical representations can provide a practical departure point for teaching cultures (p.68). However, these stereotypes ought to be challenged critically through the classroom tasks. In fact, as Starkey (1991) underlines, texts which attempts to raise learner' (inter)cultural awareness need to be approached, analysed and discussed critically in language classrooms.

Feng and Byram (2002) also state that texts and cultural representations chosen for textbooks should be contemporary as well as accurate. While it is important to include somewhat 'outdated texts' (e.g. historical events and facts) to help learners understand the historical development of a society, contemporary samples from cultures and authentic language are necessary for providing complete pictures of

cultures and languages (*ibid.*, p.65). Using only outdated samples in language education does not provide accurate and contemporary authentic input for learners, which is necessary to develop successful (inter)cultural competence. Moreover, as Kane (1991) underlines, outdated texts cannot completely reflect a real image of a society, thus can lead to a poverty of authenticity (245). All in all, ‘authenticity’ in language education encompasses a variety of texts within mutual representations and different cultural and social perspectives. Feng and Byram (2002) stress that comparing and contrasting the characteristics of these texts, thus raising learners’ awareness of intercultural dimensions, has a significant place in achieving intercultural authenticity (p.63).

## **2.6. Authenticity, autonomy and the issue of ‘native speaker’ in ELT**

Although his contribution to describing authenticity as an interactional process rather than a property of a text cannot be overlooked, Widdowson states that this interaction (i.e. authentication) occurs between conventions of native speakers as text producers and language learners’ interpretations of these norms and the original purposes of the texts (1983, 1990, 1996). As learners are not familiar with the norms of native speakers and cannot acquire discourse of native speakers completely, Widdowson (1990) claims that ‘authenticity of language in the classroom is bound to be, to some extent, an illusion’ (p.44). Ironically, today this claim seems illusory itself.

Widdowson (1979, 1994, 1996) claims that ‘authenticity’ is strongly dependent on the authority of the native speaker, and in order to teach ‘real’ English, which is the main goal of CLT, how native-speakers of English produce and use the language in real communicative settings is required to be presented gradually in the language

classroom. Widdowson (1994) also gives examples of ‘real’ magazine articles, ‘real’ advertisements, horoscopes and so on to support his claim that the process of presenting ‘naturally occurring language’ as genuine texts to promote authentic interaction in the classroom imposes the authority of native-speakers and/or norms of ‘standard’ English (p.386). However, he rather overlooks the fact that it is questionable whether these examples are in fact produced by ‘native-speakers’ and in ‘standard English’ at all. In fact, as Widdowson points out later (2003), the issue of who a native speaker is has been an ongoing debate in the field, especially as teaching English as an international language has been discussed recently with all its aspects.

MacDonald et al. (2006) also observe that in a traditional sense, authentic texts are often described as products of ‘native speakers’ of English in ‘hegemonic cultures’ such as British and North American cultures. For the ownership of English language and the concept of being a native speaker of English are highly debatable and hypothetical, the authors claim that insisting on trying to establish such a correspondence between pedagogic texts and texts produced by native speakers in hegemonic cultures can ultimately lead to ‘a poverty of language’ (*ibid.*, p.254). In fact, Badger and MacDonald (2010) underline that authentic texts are produced by both native speakers and non-native speakers (p.579). In practice, this would mean that language input in the classroom should include materials produced not only by ‘native speakers’ of English but also by non-native speakers who use English as an international language (see Feng and Byram, 2002).

When authenticity is described within native speaker norms of language use, it can usually 'privilege the native-speaker teachers of the language' (Widdowson, 1994, p.387) and put non-native speaker teachers in an unfavourable position in teaching native speaker culture and conventions (Alptekin, 2002, p.62). Although they may not be very familiar with the target culture and its discourse patterns, non-native speaker teachers can feel obliged to introduce native-speakership as an 'authentic' model or norm. This may cause two undesirable situations: first, showing a tendency to restrict the English language teaching process with one dominant target culture, which is usually British or North American, language teachers may hinder learners' intercultural communicative competence (Alptekin, 2002, p.62). Second, learner authenticity might be considered as an inherent contradiction with learner autonomy.

According to Widdowson (1994), 'authenticity' which reflects the text producers' identity does not give learners the opportunity to 'make the language their own' and to explain their identity through the language autonomously (p.387). He also claims that using authentic input can hinder the development of learners' language proficiency as learners cannot 'take possession of the language' and cannot use it for their own benefits by reflecting their own ideas and identity (p.384). Moreover, he claims that learners cannot develop authenticity and autonomy together through engaging merely with the 'real' language (*ibid.*, p.386). In this sense, he points out that authenticity of language use and autonomy of language learning cannot exist simultaneously by their nature (Widdowson, 1994, 1996).

However, Duda and Tyne (2010) point out that 'authenticity' in materials is about the conditions in which they are produced as well as in which they are used (or

‘(re)constructed’). In order to facilitate learners’ authentication of the texts and foster their autonomy, learners can be encouraged to ‘develop their own exercises and activities’ in the classroom. Here, the authors list different levels of autonomy as (1) autonomy of language, (2) autonomy of learning and (3) autonomy of choice (p.104). These levels, indeed, can be also considered significant in the process of authentication in the language learning process.

Approaching the notion of authenticity from a philosophical point of view and explaining the term after Nietzsche (1965), Cooper (1983) states that the main goal of education is to make learners ‘creative individuals who take responsibility for their lives, beliefs and values’, thus being authentic (p. 1-25). Cooper (1983) claims that if one wants to achieve this goal, s/he needs to start with understanding how classrooms, thus the educational system, are structured since the classroom in its current position is ‘at the root of inauthentic life’ (p.6). According to the author, presupposing that individual authenticity can be promoted in the classroom merely through learner-centred or ‘discovery method’ instruction may be a superficial idea despite the fact that this proposal seems very sensible in current trends in education (p.5). In fact, to what extent formal process of education can and should promote authentic beliefs and values is still questionable (p.5).

Cooper (1983) also states that the term ‘autonomy’ rather than ‘authenticity’ is often preferred within educational contexts (p.20). For instance, both Dearden (1972) and Peters (1977) use the concept of autonomy to discuss developing individual goals, responsibilities, values and behaviours (as cited in Cooper, 1983, p.20). Although these two notions (i.e. autonomy and authenticity) may sound similar in philosophy,

Cooper (1983) underlines that educational scholars tend to conceptualise the term authenticity within somewhat extreme and relatively complex frameworks (p.21), which may go as far as denying the existing norms of the society for the sake of achieving individual authenticity. Hence, the term ‘autonomy’, which focuses on developing ‘criticism’ in one’s intellectual thinking so that s/he can make his/her own choices ‘on the basis of reasons’, is regarded as more accessible and intelligible (p.21). Likewise, in ELT, it is possible to see that Holec’s (1981) definition of ‘learner autonomy’ as ‘the ability to take charge of one’s own learning’ is still used as a common reference point.

In a broader sense, as for autonomy, the basic criterion for living authentically is also being able to develop self-awareness of the reasons for our beliefs and purposes and to take the responsibility for our own actions (p.18). In this existentialist view, the process of developing such awareness often results in finding and becoming one’s real self (p.8), and promoting individual authenticity. Likewise, van Lier (1996) describes authenticity from an existentialist perspective and states that ‘authenticity’ refers to processes of self-determination and self-actualisation. Therefore, it is closely related to autonomy, and authenticity without autonomy is ‘a contradiction in terms’ (p.134).

It might be argued that authenticity is the natural result of awareness and autonomy, and at the same time that authenticity leads to increased awareness and autonomy. In other words, if you ‘know what you are doing’ and if you are ‘responsible for your own actions’, then you are ‘being authentic’. (p.133)

Discussing the concepts of autonomy and authenticity together, Holliday (2005) states that both concepts can indeed appear in the same social context (p.85). In post-method era of ELT, authenticity and autonomy become two interwoven concepts as



‘to be authentic, activities, interactions and texts need to communicate with the same social world within which students are already autonomous in their own terms’ (Holliday, 2005, p.104). That is, by autonomously establishing ways of making their own sense of what happens in the classroom, learners are capable of grading the learning process as authentic or inauthentic. This view of interconnectedness between authenticity and autonomy is embraced in the present study.

## **2.7. Gaps in research on authenticity in ELT**

Although the concept of authenticity has been frequently revisited by scholars in ELT, much of the relevant literature consists of ‘prescriptive or theoretical’ sources. There have been few empirical research projects on authenticity and those projects can be listed under categories such as ‘comparisons between authentic materials and classroom materials, studies of the efficacy of authentic materials and suggestions of how technology can help access authentic materials’ (Brown, 2011; p.136). Likewise there are a number of empirical studies focusing on roles of authentic materials in learners’ attitudes and motivation in language learning (e.g. Boran, 1999; Peacock, 1996), or in developing learners’ communicative competence (e.g. Gilmore, 2007a). Other studies also address authenticity within classroom task designs (e.g. Choi, 2010) and within interactional framework for materials design and language learning in ESP contexts (e.g. Abdul-Kareem, 1999; Trabelsi, 2011).

Although there are a few studies conducted to investigate the meanings and/or impacts of ‘authenticity’ to promote effective language learning, most of these studies have been carried out in ESP contexts (see Choi, 2010; Abdul-Kareem, 1999; Trabelsi, 2011). Along with the researchers’ familiarity and possible convenience of accessing the research sites as insiders (e.g. practitioners in ESP classrooms), it is

also possible to claim that ‘authenticity’ has a relatively different role in such contexts, especially in terms of its correspondence account (e.g. comparing the classroom tasks with language use in target community). For example, with communicative methodology in language education, ‘authentic’ materials and tasks became more relevant and demanded in ESP contexts than in the context of EGP where it is problematic to know precisely what contexts or language learners are eventually going to encounter (Clarke, 1989; Murray, 1996; Trabelsi, 2010). Describing the issue of authenticity as ‘underlying all of the key characteristics of ESP’ (p.15), Abdul-Kareem (1999) examined ‘the process of negotiation of authenticity in communication by ESL learners and the instructor’ in his study. He claims that authenticity reveals itself through negotiation and construction over phases in an ESL classroom. In the context of EGP, however, the studies have been mostly limited with investigating authenticity through adopting very limited materials-based (e.g. native-speaker oriented) or learner-focused approaches rather than developing a holistic and constructivist approach.

Considering the fact that most previous studies have addressed only one or two aspects of authenticity (e.g. quality of materials) and either correspondence or genesis account of authenticity, it is possible to claim that there is still a need for further research on the issue of authenticity in English language classrooms. Unlike some of the previous studies presented in this chapter, this research aims at combining both ‘genesis’ and ‘correspondence’ accounts of authenticity (Cooper, 1983) while investigating the authentic experiences of both learners and teachers in the language classroom through a holistic and dynamic view of authenticity. To this end, the present study encompasses various dimensions of ‘authenticity’ in ELT.

Furthermore, it focuses on the interaction between different dimensions of authenticity, rather than positioning one of them in the very centre of the research problem.

The studies investigating the relationship between authentic input and language acquisition often ‘reduce the act of learning a language to linguistic or behavioural conditioning’ and they overlook the fact that the experience of learning a language is not independent from learners’ social realities (Breen, 1985b, p.138). Within their own ‘social realities’, learners engage with and interpret the given texts and activities. By adopting a social constructivist framework, this study attempts to describe authenticity as an interactional process through which participants (i.e. learners and teachers) ‘authenticate’ their experiences in the language classroom. In order to illustrate the relationship between the dimensions of authenticity, in the next chapter, I will present the conceptualisation of authenticity that I adopt in this study.

## CHAPTER 3

# CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The literature review in the previous chapter led me to identify the specifications of the dimensions of authenticity and to describe ‘authentication’ as the interaction between these dimensions. To illustrate the dynamics between these dimensions, a model for the conceptualisation of authenticity in the language classroom will be presented in this chapter. It is worth highlighting that this model does not represent a prescriptive or dogmatic visualisation of the phenomenon to be tested against reality, but a dynamic and holistic conceptualisation emerging from the literature review.

Although they do not present such a model, Shomoossi & Ketabi (2007) highlight that the notion of authenticity should be studied within a theoretical model that explicitly addresses the interaction between learners, teachers, text and activities in the context of language teaching and learning. As underlined in the previous chapter, ‘authenticity’ can emerge as ‘the result of acts of authentication’ by students and teachers through their personal ‘process of engagement’ and validation-in-context (van Lier, 1996, p.125). Hence, a model through which the conceptualisation of authenticity in the language classroom is studied needs to be of a constructivist nature.

Individuals, as social beings, are in the very centre of the process of meaning-making and of the process of authentication. As Badger (2011) underlines, ‘authenticity is individual’ and what is more authentic for one language user/learner may be less

authentic for another one, or vice versa. For example, depending on their age, gender, proficiency level or previous experiences, different learners may have different expectations and perceptions as they describe ‘authenticity’ (see Chavez, 1998). All these individual factors inevitably affect the process of authentication by the participants in the learning environment.

This kind of conceptualisation should also adopt a ‘social’ approach as language learning and teaching is a social act and ‘is always the product of socially situated participants’ (Candlin, 2001; p.xvi). Breen (1985b) explicitly states that

If we hope to explain fully the relationship between classroom input and learning outcomes, or to explain possible relationships between strategic behaviour and language learning, then we need to locate these relationships *socially*. How and why learners do what they do will be strongly influenced by their situation, who they are with and by their perceptions of both. (p.138)

Describing the classroom context as a specific culture, Breen (1985b) underlines that classroom culture is jointly constructed by the participants. Classrooms also provide appropriate environments to ‘re-construct knowledge’ through interaction (Breen, 1985b, p.147) and specific conditions for authenticity (Breen, 1985a). Hence, an investigation into the concept of authenticity should be within the conventions of language learning and other social and pedagogical factors in context. Here, it is important to understand how the meanings of particular events or phenomena vary with different conditions and how the participants of these events realise the activities and notions emerging from these conditions (Lock & Strong, 2010; Marechal, 2010). Constructivism deals with individuals’ understanding and meaning-making processes as well as their active roles within a social structure

(Crotty, 1998). Therefore, the conceptualisation of authenticity in this study has social constructivist tenets.

Applying the social constructivist approach in language education, Williams and Burden (1997) present ‘a social constructivist model’ of the teaching-learning process (p.42-44) in which knowledge is socially constructed by individual participants in the learning environment. Placing the learner in the centre and concentrating on the dynamic nature of the interaction between its components, the model involves learner, teacher, task and context(s). While each of these four components is individually considered to be of particular value, as Williams and Burden (1997) underline, ‘none of these factors exists in isolation; they all interact as part of a dynamic, ongoing process’ (p.43).

For the present study, the following model is designed to explore the relationships between different aspects of authenticity in English language classrooms. The model is adapted from Williams and Burden’s (1997) social constructivist model. Here, the components of the model (e.g. text, task, teacher and learner) are placed within a ‘Penrose square’ to highlight both individual (e.g. subjective) and interactive (e.g. inter-subjective) roles and relationships of each component in a social setting. As seen in the model, although each component represents a separate dimension of the model, all of them are interconnected with one another as well as with the surrounding contexts. The dashed lines around the square represent contextualisation of these components within permeable boundaries.

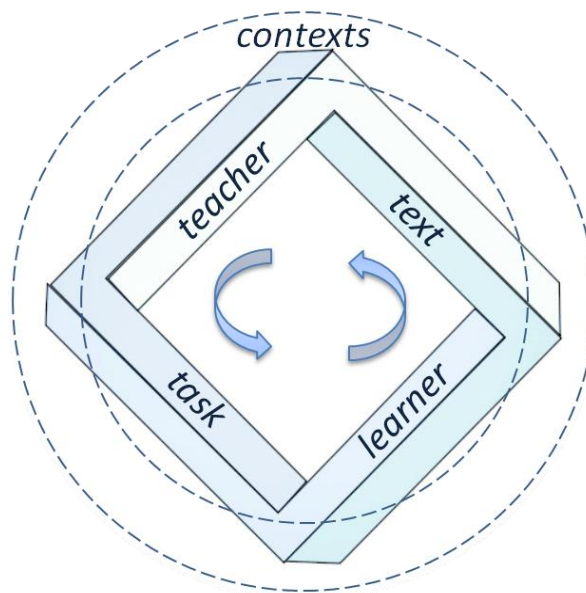


Figure 3.1. Dimensions of authenticity in the language classroom

In this model, learners are regarded as active ‘meaning-makers’ and ‘problem-solvers’ who bring their individual cognitive strategies, perspectives, expectations and social experiences in the classroom. Therefore, learners are capable of making their own sense of the process of language instruction. As Holliday (2005) states, learners’ involvement and interaction during the lesson may not be exclusively planned and shaped by the teacher or the task. This is a process which ‘happens anyway’ as learners attempt to realise and respond to what is actually happening in the classroom (for example, see Allwright & Bailey, 1991). Indeed, learners can actively try to comprehend the nature of the interaction in the classroom and their roles in this interaction, which is what Holliday (2005) calls as ‘authentic engagement’ (p.108). Likewise, teachers bring their own beliefs, attitudes and values in the teaching process, which affects the selection of texts and tasks to be introduced in the classroom. Williams and Burden (1997) claim that teachers’ beliefs (about learning, teaching, learners and themselves) and their knowledge essentially influence how they organise and carry out their teaching. The present study, thereby,

aims to explore the nature of learners' and teachers' authentic engagements in the process of language learning and teaching in the classroom.

The classroom task also has a significant role in this model as it is 'the interface between the teacher and learners' (Williams and Burden, 1997, p.44). In a language classroom, by changing the types of input data, learners' roles or other factors, tasks can be used to produce various types of interaction and outputs. Therefore, the processes of designing, presenting and validating the tasks used in language classrooms should be carefully studied. Williams and Burden (1997) state that tasks can be regarded as 'a manifestation of the theories of learning subscribed to by teachers and their perceptions of the whole spectrum of the teaching-learning process' (p.183). That is, while addressing learners' interests and goals, tasks are more likely to reflect the teacher's own beliefs about teaching and learning such as learners' roles and involvements in a task. For example, if the teacher believes that grammar is the core of language learning, and language is learned through merely focusing on form, s/he may introduce particular types of tasks that reflect this belief. In their model, Williams and Burden (1997) address 'input data' as a part of 'task' component and briefly discuss it in the chapter about the tasks used in the language classroom. However, since 'text' has been regarded as a significant component in the discussion of authenticity in ELT and it includes both materials (e.g. textbooks or 'authentic' texts) and other language data in the classroom, it is presented as a separate component of the model developed for the present study.

Finally, the context is also explicitly addressed in the model because it inevitably affects and is affected by the other components. The context in which learning takes



place may include the physical, social, political, cultural environments as well as the emotional one (Williams and Burden, 1997, p.44). That is, it may refer to national and cultural environments, educational system of a country, physical environment and the structure of the classroom (i.e. organising teaching and learning experiences and styles). All of these factors influence the learning and teaching processes and the interaction between the participants. Furthermore, Williams and Burden (1997) highlight that by involving their own perceptions and perspectives, the participants shape and co-construct these factors, thus becoming both the producers and productions of their own contexts (p.199-202).

I pay attention to the aspects that Williams and Burden (1997) discuss under the component of 'context' (e.g. physical environment, the school ethos, classroom climate, political environment etc.) in this study. Moreover, while addressing the relationship between authenticity and context, I refer to the concepts of small and large cultures (Holliday, 1999). That is, both the interactional context and pedagogical conventions within language classroom culture (small culture) and local and international references in cultural issues (large culture) are addressed throughout the study. In order to refer to these two notions of culture and to highlight the blurred and somehow interwoven boundaries between them, the outline circles are presented with dashed lines in the model. As Holliday (1999) states 'small cultures do not necessarily have the Russian doll or onion-skin relationship with parent large cultures' with rigid borders (p.239).

As the social constructivist model encompasses both cognitive and social perspectives on the process of meaning-making, it is concerned not only with what

participants possess and bring to a particular learning situation but also how they (co)construct a 'dynamic interaction' with other participants. Breen (1985b) states that any models used to study the language classroom should focus on the relationship between social dynamics and events of the classroom and individual's contributions and developments within these events. At the end, 'the social context of learning and the social forces within it will always shape what is made available to be learned and the interaction of individual mind with external linguistic or communicative knowledge' (*ibid.*, p.139). Likewise, it can be claimed that the roles of social contexts and of participants need to be explicitly addressed in order to shed light on the process of authentication in the language classroom. As noted earlier, authentication in ELT is 'a process of engagement in the learning situation and a characteristic of persons engaged in learning' (van Lier, 1996, p.125). The model proposed in this study aims to provide a dynamic, coherent and effective conceptual framework for the discussion of the notion of authenticity in language classrooms.

Utilising this model, the present study investigates how authenticity is (co)constructed as a set of relations in the classroom context where individual and social discourses are construed through interaction. More specifically, it focuses on the extent to which participants authenticate their learning and teaching experiences. As Williams and Burden (1997, p.42-46) highlight, although presenting and investigating the components as separate entries may cause contradiction and artificiality, this separation can be helpful to build a coherent and fruitful discussion through which both the individual contributions of each component and the dynamic relationships among them can be revealed. The model provides not only a coherent framework for the present study, but also a flexible one.

## CHAPTER 4

# METHODOLOGY

### 4.1. Research questions

The main aim of this study is to investigate ‘authenticity’ in English language teaching and learning in Turkey. In order to achieve this, the study aims to explore the relationship between different dimensions of authenticity (i.e. text, task, learner and teacher) and the extent to which authenticity is co-constructed by the participants in the language classrooms. The research questions asked in this study are as follows:

1. To what extent is the language learning and teaching experience authentic for the participants?
  - 1.a. How do learners and teachers construct an authentic experience in the English language classroom individually?
  - 1.b. How do learners and teachers interact to construct an authentic experience together?
2. What is the relationship between the context and the participants’ experiences of language learning and teaching?
  - 2.a. What is the relationship between the context of ‘language classroom’ and the participants’ classroom experiences?
  - 2.b. What is the relationship between wider contexts and the participants’ classroom experiences?

In a broader sense, the research questions aim to investigate the process of authentication by the teachers and learners in the language classroom. The first question intends to examine the nature of an authentic experience in the language classroom in which the participants reflect (on) their feelings, comments and choices in the process of language teaching and learning both as individuals and as members of the classroom community. It included two specific questions as *1.a* focusing on how the participants as individuals construct an authentic experience in the classroom, and *1.b* focusing on how they co-construct this experience. The second question aims to explore the extent to which the context affects and/or is affected by the participants' engagement in the process of language learning and teaching, thus the process of authentication by them. While *2.a* focuses on the nature of this relationship within the context of 'language classroom' (i.e. 'small culture'), *2.b* aims to find out possible effects of the wider context(s) on this relationship (i.e. 'large culture'). Inevitably, both of the main research questions address the texts and tasks used in the classroom (e.g. their purposes, designs and functions as well as presentation) and how participants respond to them in the classroom context. Moreover, they also aim to explore how (inter)cultural issues have been addressed in the classroom within the scope of the present study.

In order to answer these questions, both the individual behaviours and preferences of participants and the relationships between them (e.g. agreements or conflicts) have been addressed in this study. Observations and interpretations of these relationships and the process of authentication by the participants have been guided by the conceptual framework and the working definition of authenticity outlined in previous chapters.

The research questions stated above have both ‘descriptive’ and ‘explanatory’ purposes. As de Vaus (2001) and White (2009) state, well-put descriptive questions are likely to provoke the ‘why’ questions of explanatory research, hence explanatory questions usually follow descriptive ones in research projects. Here, although the questions do not explicitly include the word ‘why’, they carry an explanatory purpose. Observing and examining ‘how’ teachers and learners co-construct an authentic experience in the classroom through engagement and negotiation precede the investigation of ‘why’ aspects of the process. In the end, the overall purpose is to answer the research questions through particular research methods discussed in detail below and to draw the whole picture of the research context.

#### **4.2. Ontological and epistemological orientations**

Ontology and epistemology are the most fundamental components of any research process. While ontology refers to the nature of reality and of ‘being’; epistemology refers to the nature of knowledge. In other words, ontology is about what we (can) know and epistemology is about how we know what we know (Crotty, 1998; Grix, 2010). Grix (2010) suggests that it is researcher’s ontological and epistemological orientations that shape the whole research process from generating research questions to collecting and analysing data to answer those questions (p.68). Thus, ontology and epistemology are closely related to the very foundation of the theoretical perspective and methodology of research (Crotty, 1998; Mack, 2010). In fact, there is a dialectical relationship among all constituents of research including its ontological and epistemological tenets.

Although the concepts of ontology and epistemology are often discussed separately, it should be borne in mind that these are actually two interwoven and interrelated

concepts. Crotty (1998) highlights that the two concepts are likely to exist together and complement each other. In a sense, the individual and social processes of 'the construction of meaning' can be both the result and the origin of 'the construction of meaningful reality' (p.10). How a researcher approaches 'reality' and 'knowledge' inevitably affects how s/he develops and evaluates the research process (Mack, 2010). That is, the ontological and epistemological views of a researcher are interrelated not only within each other, but also with his/her methodological intentions and applications.

My ontological stance in this particular study is that reality is a dynamic concept and we can talk about multiple and (inter-)subjective realities. That is, different people may interpret events and objects differently from different perceptions. Since the construction of multiple realities is, by its nature, 'open to change and to reconstruction' (Johnson, 1992), the present research adopts the constructivist research paradigm, which will be discussed below in detail. The language classroom, for instance, involves multiple 'subjective and inter-subjective realities that are worked out, changed and maintained' throughout the instructional process (Li, 2007, p.76).

Epistemologically, I would argue that knowledge is a personal, subjective and relative matter, and different people construct and construe 'their knowledge' in different ways. As Cumming (1994) underlines, knowledge can be 'culturally embedded in specific social contexts' (p.685); therefore, any study of knowledge needs to encompass how members of those contexts act and react in the process of constructing their realities. I believe that these different ways of how people construe

knowledge should be respected and regarded as invaluable entities. In particular, ‘constructionism’ is embraced in this study as it proposes that knowledge is socially and individually constituted as a result of our engagement within our world.

Although not all scholars point out the fine line between constructionism and subjectivism as two epistemological positions, Crotty (1998) explains the difference between them referring to the relationship between ‘subject’ and ‘object’. In constructionism, according to the author, meaning is ‘not discovered or created but constructed’; that is, subject (e.g. the inquirer) and object (e.g. the object of inquiry) are in interaction to build a meaningful reality. In subjectivism, however, meaning does not emerge as a result of the mutual interaction between subject and object, but it is ‘imposed on the object by the subject’ (p.8-9). In the present study, I follow the assumption that both subject and object contribute to the construction of meaning. Hence, meaning, thus our knowledge, comes from our individual and social interactions with concepts and objects around us. In terms of the research process including preparation, data collection, analysis and presentation, this can refer to the following aspects: (1) my interpretation and construction of the subject matter in this research as a researcher; (2) research participants’ individual and social engagement in and construction of their ‘realities’ and (3) readers’ interactions with and interpretation of the research report.

It is worth highlighting that in research, the relationship between the researcher, participants and object of investigation is ‘of fundamental importance’ (Richards, 2003, p.38). Here, I should also address my special role and influence during the data collection. As it will be seen in the following chapters, I delivered some of the

lessons in the research sites. My role as the teacher in these lessons was not a pre-planned intervention. In Classrooms A.1, B.1 and B.2, the teachers asked me to deliver some lessons either just before the lesson or one week earlier the lesson. In most cases, in Classroom B.2 in particular, the teachers wanted me to follow the textbook content. In order to avoid excessive intervention, I always consulted the teachers about my lesson plans and followed their guidance. I also followed the same methodological procedures for these lessons (e.g. audio-recording my teaching, writing up the classroom observation notes after my lessons). Hence, in addition to my interpretation and construction of the subject matter in this study as a researcher, I have also acknowledged my role as a teacher.

In the light of the ontological and epistemological stances adopted, this research process inevitably involves a degree of subjectivity. In fact, as Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) stress, conducting fully objective and value-free research is ‘a myth’ (p.16). It is impossible for researchers, as human-beings, to completely leave their values, beliefs and orientations in research process (Johnson, 1992; Mack, 2010). Johnson (1992) states that researchers involve their subjectivity through ‘the theories they employ as guiding frameworks, through choices about what to study and what to exclude from study and through the methodologies they use’ (p.32).

In conclusion, the potential outcomes of this study are interpretive and suggestive rather than conclusive or beyond argument. They may provide very useful and convincing ways of seeing and understanding how ‘authenticity’ is interpreted, negotiated and co-constructed in language classrooms, but undoubtedly those will be not any ‘one true way’ of seeing and framing this notion in practice (Crotty, 1998). I



recognise and respect that different ways of interpreting and describing certain notions and processes by different people may reflect nothing but individuals' diverse ways of constructions of meaning and knowledge, thus of meaningful realities.

Bearing the interrelationship between ontological and epistemological assumptions and research methods in mind, constructivist research paradigm and the qualitative case study design are embraced in the present study.

#### **4.3. Research paradigm**

In a broader sense, three major theoretical paradigms, or in Wright's (2006) words, 'the old paradigmatic trinity' (p.80), are highlighted in the research literature, which are namely (post-) positivism, constructivism and critical perspective. Richards (2009a) briefly describes (post-) positivism as a set of basic beliefs in which we can formulate a hypothesis and test that hypothesis through a process of systematic and controlled measurement. Constructivism, on the other hand, is concerned with construction of reality through personal and subjective knowledge and stance, thus we can talk about multiple realities. Finally, critical theory concentrates on socially constructed knowledge and asymmetries in power relations in the target community (p.148).

The present research follows the research tradition of the constructivist paradigm. Constructivism, as a research paradigm, aims to understand how individuals, as social beings, create and interpret the notions and actions in their social environment(s). Therefore, it involves methods and techniques to discover multiple perspectives and interpretations of the research population (Robson, 2002). My

epistemological and ontological orientation as a researcher and the fact that the concept of authenticity is often described as an ‘individual’ and ‘relative’ matter in the literature of ELT are two main reasons for adopting the constructivist approach in this research process. As seen in the previous chapters, the notion of authenticity is constituted through not only individual and genuine choices and perceptions but also social interactions between participants in the classroom context, which is often affected by broader contexts in institutional and (inter)national levels.

#### **4.4. Research design**

In the constructivist tradition, the present study is designed following the qualitative case study approach. After discussing the characteristics of the qualitative research, I will address the characteristics of case study and the reasons for adopting it in this particular study.

##### **4.4.1. Qualitative research design**

As noted in the section about the ontological stance, I believe that there are multiple, subjective realities and these multiple realities are (co)constructed by individuals interacting within their social worlds. By its very nature, interpretive qualitative research enhances our understanding of how people (co)construct meaningful realities within social settings (e.g. classrooms) through their experiences and it attempts to make sense of their words (Davis, 1995; Merriam, 1998; 2009). Hence, a qualitative approach to research is adopted both during the data collection and data analysis processes in order to find and discuss the answers of the research questions stated above.

Qualitative research necessitates data collection methods which are sensitive to elicit underlying meaning in a context such as in-depth interviews and participant observations (Merriam, 1998). Utilising these methods, qualitative research usually involves the collection and analysis of recorded spoken or written data (e.g. audio or video recordings, field-notes). Thus, the research process is likely to involve open-ended, non-numerical and complex data which is usually analysed through non-statistical means (Dörnyei, 2007). In fact, gathering and interpreting a wide range of rich and complex data is one of the main features of qualitative research (Dörnyei, 2007), which leads to thoroughly descriptive research production (Merriam, 1998, 2009).

In order to provide rich and complex data, qualitative research also involves a fluid, flexible and mostly iterative research process (Dörnyei, 2007), which can be considered as a ‘person-centred enterprise’ (Richards, 2003, p.9). Indeed, qualitative research focuses on the meanings embedded in people’s experiences, and aims at understanding them through the perspectives of participants or insiders and this is usually referred to as an ‘emic’ approach. In this sense, qualitative research is likely to include principally participant-oriented fieldwork, and it attempts to investigate participants in natural settings and conditions (Davis, 1995; Merriam, 1998, 2009; Richards, 2003, 2009a). As a result, it requires the researcher to be a good communicator who is able to empathise with respondents and establish rapport with participants.

To provide clear understanding of subject matter, qualitative research also involves inductive research strategies and it tends to place the researcher as ‘the primary

instrument for data collection and analysis' (Merriam, 2009, p.15). That is, it usually requires the researcher to be actively involved in both data collection and analysis processes, which are mainly 'filtered through [the researcher's] worldview, values and perspectives' (Merriam, 1998, p.22). Furthermore, qualitative research focuses on 'a meaning in the particular' (Dörnyei, 2007, p.27), relying on holistic and inductive interpretations of particular conditions (Richards, 2009a; Wiersma & Jurs, 2009), which are mainly shaped by the researcher's 'subjective interpretation, sensitivity and experience' (Dörnyei, 2007, p.28). Merriam (1998) also states that in qualitative research, the researcher brings 'a construction of reality to the research situation, which interacts with other people's constructions or interpretations of the phenomenon being studied' (p.22). Therefore, the researcher needs to be sensitive not only to the context and the variables within it but also to his/her presence, and thus his/her subjectivity, within the research process.

Although researcher subjectivity is an intrinsic part of this research tradition, this situation can threaten the validity and rigour of the study if it is overlooked by the researcher. Therefore, I have paid close attention to and kept detailed accounts of the role and possible influence of my presence throughout the study (e.g. researcher's diary). In addition to subjectivity, qualitative research involves a relatively high degree of ambiguity due to its very nature. Therefore, the researcher should have 'an enormous tolerance for ambiguity' (Merriam, 1998, p.20). Other issues that should be taken into consideration as possible limitations of qualitative research can be listed as having small sample size, requiring a lot of time and effort in collection, organisation and analysis of the data, and having a tendency to generate too complex or too narrow theories.

Adopting the qualitative research tradition in the present study, I used classroom observations, interviews and field journals as research tools to explore the process of authentication by the participants in the classroom context. Since a qualitative case study can provide an ‘intensive, holistic description and analysis’ of units or phenomena being studied (Merriam, 1998, p.21), a case study approach is adopted in particular.

#### **4.4.2. Case study**

Research questions with descriptive and explanatory purposes, which require in-depth description of a particular unit or phenomenon in a particular context or process, are likely to lead to the use of case study as a desired approach in research methodology (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Flyvbjerg, 2011; Yin, 2009). Yin (2009) explicitly states that case studies are particularly useful when (1) research questions involve ‘how’ and ‘why’ questions, (2) researcher is able to investigate the selected events with little or no control over the events, and (3) the main focus is on a contemporary phenomenon in a ‘real-life’ context. Furthermore, a case study approach is ‘an excellent method for obtaining a thick description’ for a complex issue ‘embedded within a cultural context’ (Dörnyei, 2007, p.155). These are, in fact, the main reasons for choosing a case study approach in research methodology of this study.

In a broader sense, the case study as an approach now widely used in contemporary research in education and the social sciences refers to investigating a particular unit, entity or phenomenon, or a set of these, within its naturally occurring context in order to explore its characteristics and ‘dynamics’ (Cohen et al., 2011; Johnson, 1992; Nunan, 1992; Richards, 2003; van Lier, 2005). The overall aim of the case

study research is to obtain a rich and thorough description of the particular unit to be studied (Dörnyei, 2007; Richards, 2003). Through this thick description, it aims to gain rich insights into the experiences of those involved within the selected context (Richards, 2003), and to uncover ‘the interaction of significant factors characteristic of the phenomenon’ in context (Merriam, 1998, p.29). Thus, the focus is on process rather than isolated outcomes, and on particular contexts and components of those contexts within specific temporal and spatial boundaries rather than separate and decontextualised variables (Merriam, 1998, 2009; VanWynsberghe & Khan, 2007).

The main features of qualitative case studies can be listed as (1) being particularistic, focusing on a specific unit or phenomenon within its natural setting(s), (2) being heuristic, enhancing readers’ understanding of the selected phenomenon by extending their experience and (3) being descriptive, providing contextual details and a thick description of the phenomenon under study and (Merriam, 1998; VanWynsberghe & Khan, 2007). Here, the term ‘thick description’ borrowed from Geertz (1973) refers to complete and detailed description and interpretation of an event or behaviour, which includes attempts to understand one’s intentionality in particular actions and behaviours (Davis, 1995; Ponterotto, 2006). Ponterotto (2006) lists the essential features of ‘thick description’ as involving accurate and detailed description of the social actions within their contexts and interpreting thoughts, motives and intentions of participants as well as the relationships between them (p.542-543).

I have aimed to provide a thick description of the specific classroom events and the participants’ actions and behaviours in context to explore the nature of the process of

authentication within the scope of the present study. This was carried out through presenting rich and clear information about the research process in general as well as about the participants' engagement and the contextual factors in the research sites. At the end, 'thick description' can result in 'thick interpretation, which in turn leads to thick meaning of the research findings' (Ponterotto, 2006, p.543).

#### **4.4.2.1. Embedded, multiple-case design**

It is possible to design case studies according to four basic types depending on the characteristics and numbers of cases or embedded units within cases. Yin (2009) describes these four basic types of design for case studies: (1) holistic single-case designs, (2) embedded single-case designs, (3) holistic multiple-case designs and (4) embedded multiple-case designs (p.46).

The present study is tailored as a multiple-case design. A multiple, or collective, case study design includes a set of cases that are to be focused on within one research project using same research questions and similar methods of data collection and analysis to investigate a phenomenon or entity thoroughly (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Goddard, 2010; Stake, 2005; Yin, 2009). While each case is examined in an 'in-depth manner' in its particular context, data obtained from different case contexts are usually combined in the analysis and reporting processes (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Goddard, 2010). This study also has an embedded-case design, involving more than one unit of analysis, or embedded 'mini' sub-cases within each case (Yin, 2009). As a result, it is an *embedded, multiple-case* design.

In particular, the study attempts to answer the research questions in two main research sites (i.e. cases), which are two different Anatolian high schools in Ankara,

Turkey. Each case involves two separate units of analysis (i.e. mini cases), which are embedded in the broader context of their particular case while having their own contextual features at the same time (i.e. classrooms). All in all, the study design includes two cases, each of which has two embedded units of analysis. Figure 4.1 below shows the structure of design. Although the two schools are listed as larger cases, the analysis and discussion of data have been conducted at the classroom level (i.e. embedded units as mini cases) due to practical issues (e.g. accessing and collecting detailed information at school level) and the relationship between ‘authenticity’ and ‘classroom context’ that has been recurrently emphasised in the relevant literature.

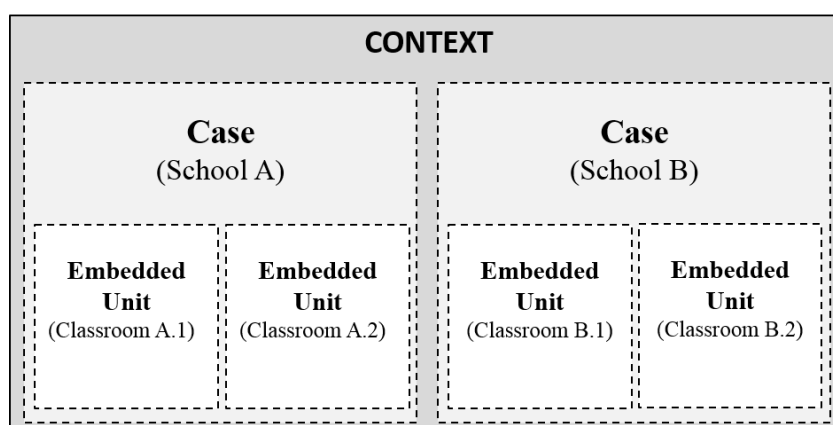


Figure 4.1. Case design

Within the scope of this research, the nature of authentic language learning and teaching experience has been studied through multi-layered boundaries that encompass not only classroom-level but also broader-level contextual factors. That is, using the model presented in Chapter 3, which provides flexible and multi-layered contextual borders, the study attempts not only to investigate classroom instruction with its specific participants, materials and settings but also to address broader contextual factors and conditions such as the role of the group of language teachers in each school or local and/or (inter)national references that somewhat shape what is



happening in the classroom. Yin (2009) states that the researcher should always pay attention to the role and impact of contextual conditions in case selection and analysis. In fact, contextual boundaries can be regarded as a decisive factor in drawing the framework of a case. In Figure 4.1, the dotted lines around the embedded units and cases refer to the fact that these entities are somewhat interwoven, and the boundaries between them are not sharp or rigid. As Yin (2009) underlines, the boundaries between the phenomenon under investigation and context are not completely salient in the case study. Moreover, Wells, Hirshberg, Lipton and Oakes (1995) claims that the boundaries of a case is likely to be ‘co-constructed’ with participants.

As seen in Figure 4.1, the cases, and the embedded units, are placed within one larger context. The reason for this is the fact that although each classroom and school has its own contextual features and distinguishing conditions, they are listed under the same type of high school in the educational system (i.e. Anatolian high schools) and they share the same curriculum and administrative regulations. Hence, they are parts of a larger educational and social context even though they are situated within their own particular contexts. The different colours in the figure are to highlight distinguishable contexts of the cases and embedded units (mini-cases).

The main reason for adopting an embedded multiple-case design is to study and understand ‘authenticity’ in English language learning and teaching process in the selected contexts thoroughly through cross-case comparisons and a variety of perspectives and insights that these sets of cases and embedded units can provide. Yin (2010) underlines that although each case is a unique system, the overall goal of

a case study can be ‘to pose the propositions at a conceptual level’ higher than that of an individual case (p.21). Indeed, adopting a multiple-case design facilitates drawing generalisations from the entire collection (Goddard, 2010, p.165) while not overlooking the unique characteristics and importance of each context. The issue of generalisation in qualitative case study will be discussed in detail in Section 4.8.

Consequently, it can be claimed that one of the advantages of adopting a multiple-case design is that it helps to enhance the external validity of research findings (Merriam, 1998; Yin, 2009). Using more than one unit of analysis is likely to make the study more compelling (Merriam, 1998, 2009), and it provides a researcher with better understanding about a set of cases and the relationships between them (Stake, 2005). Baxter and Jack (2008) also emphasise that a multiple-case design tends to be both ‘robust and reliable’ (p.550). However, this design might also be very time consuming and might cause collection of too much data with lack of organisation if it is not planned carefully. It should be also noted that case studies, especially with multiple-case designs, can demonstrate a vulnerable structure regarding the extent to which they can provide analytic generalisability ‘without jeopardizing their strengths as intensive and holistic analyses’ (Elger, 2010, p.57). In order to minimise potential pitfalls of multiple-case design, researchers should pay attention to case selection and case design in general.

Case selection is an essential step in the case study design. Bleijenbergh (2010) highlights that cases should not be selected randomly but strategically in a way that provides ‘maximum information’ and rich descriptions about the research objective (p.61). According to the author, the criteria for case selection are mainly determined

by the type of research questions, and multiple-case designs are usually preferred to answer explanatory research questions (Bleijenbergh, 2010). As noted before, the present study poses and attempts to answer research questions with descriptive and explanatory purposes. Therefore, I believe that encompassing more than one case will provide very useful and invaluable input to achieve the research objectives. Another important step in the design is deciding the number of cases to be studied.

By its nature, the number of cases in a study with one researcher has to be small as ‘the essence of the case study approach is a careful and holistic look at particular cases’ (Johnson. 1992, p.76). Therefore, the present study is limited to two pairs of embedded units. Investigating four embedded units is expected to provide enough detailed data to understand the specific phenomena under study and to help in gaining a clear understanding of similarities and differences between these units. Furthermore, as Baxter and Jack (2008) state, choosing two pairs of units from two different contexts, i.e. schools, will give the opportunity to interpret the data ‘within the sub-units separately (within case analysis), between the different sub-units (between case analysis) or across all of the sub-units (cross-case analysis)’ (p.550). In this way, patterns across the units of analysis can be explored comprehensively while detailed description of each unit of analysis is being discussed in detail (Campbell, 2010).

Two main cases (i.e. two schools) and four embedded units (i.e. 9<sup>th</sup> grade classrooms) will be described in detail in the following sections, which aim to provide more information about the case selection in this study and the nature of particular research contexts.

#### **4.4.2.2. Sampling**

Qualitative case studies are likely to have two levels of sampling: selecting particular units of analysis can be regarded as the first level of sampling and selecting specific participants and activities in these units can be regarded as the second level (Merriam, 1998, 2009).

Sampling, in a broader sense, refers to the process of selection of particular research participants, times and events that the researcher includes and investigates in the study (Dörnyei, 2007; Merriam, 1998, 2009). Two main types of sampling procedures in research are probability sampling and non-probability sampling. Qualitative research usually follows a non-probability sampling method, and one of the most common sample types in this method is ‘purposive or purposeful’ sampling, in which the researcher selects a group of participants from whom ‘the most can be learned’ (Merriam, 1998, p.61). Various types of purposeful sampling strategies can be listed as typical sampling, maximum variation sampling, unique sampling, extreme or deviant case sampling, convenience sampling and snowball or chain sampling (Dörnyei, 2007; Merriam, 1998, 2009).

In the present study the following sampling strategies were adopted in the selection of the schools, the classrooms to be observed and the groups of language teachers and students to be interviewed:

Typical sampling	Although there was no chance that they had completely identical backgrounds and features, the contexts and participants were selected to reflect the ‘average’ or ‘typical’ instances with regard to the focus of this study. In other words, the lessons observed and participants selected in this study had similar characteristics with their counterparts, especially within the selected school contexts.
Convenience sampling	Although this strategy is not particularly purposive, it is ‘largely practical’ and very often preferred by researchers in applied linguistics (Dörnyei, 2007, p.129). The schools, participants and events were selected according to their availability and accessibility, as well as the participants’ willingness to volunteer.
Chain sampling	This strategy was particularly used with the teachers. One teacher from each school was identified with the help of the principals and s/he helped me to find other teachers who would be interested in participating in this study.

Table 4.1. Sampling strategies

Sampling procedures also include deciding on an adequate number of participants and activities in data collection to answer the research questions (Merriam, 1998, 2009). As Merriam (1998, 2009) observes, numbers are likely to be revisited and revised during the period of data collection and/or first phases of data analysis. For example, although I had planned to involve four students as participants for the pilot study, I revised this number to eight during the data collection. This helped me to find out the underlying reasons and interpretations of particular actions and behaviours by the students in the language lessons. Including eight interviewees in the pilot also helped me improve my interview questions and skills for the main study. The details of research context and schedule will be discussed in detail in the following section.

		Number of Classrooms	Number of Teachers	Number of Teacher Trainees	Number of Students
<b>Pilot Study</b>		1	1	-	8
<b>Main Study</b>	<b>Phase I.</b>	4	4	8	8
	<b>Phase II.</b>				

Table 4.2. Sampling numbers

I selected the four classrooms to be observed according to the language teachers' preferences and their accessibility. In three cases, we decided together with the teachers which days and lessons could be appropriate and available for both sides. Only in one case, the teacher herself determined which lessons I could observe. Although it had not been planned in the initial research schedule, I also involved eight teacher trainees in the study. The teacher trainees (TT, hereafter) were in their twenties and they were studying on their BA in ELT in one of the universities in Ankara. As a part of their last year course requirements, they were observing 'real' classroom practices in the schools. They also prepared and taught some of the lessons in the classrooms in this study. Since I attended some of the lessons with them and observed their teaching practices, and since some issues about their lessons were mentioned during the interviews with the students, I asked some of them to participate in this study. Eight of the TTs accepted to participate and the same ethical procedures discussed in the Section 4.9 were followed with them.

While selecting the students to be interviewed, I particularly took the following issues into consideration:

- (1) Students who volunteered to participate in this research and who could allow some time during the lunch break for the interviews,
- (2) Students who seemed engaged in the classroom activities (e.g. asking and/or answering questions, making comments about activities, discussing the content with his/her classmates and so on),
- (3) Students who could be easily observed from the place where I sat in the classroom during the classroom observations.

In the main study, I had two students as participants from each classroom rather than one or more because of practical issues. Some of these issues are that: (1) the interviews were held during the lunch break when it was not always possible or efficient to conduct more than one or two interviews; (2) I wanted to use that limited time to interview the same participants more than once (on a weekly basis) in order to elicit and explore more information from these participants; (3) I wanted to control the amount of interview data within manageable limits in terms of organising, analysing and reporting the data.

#### **4.5. Research context**

This section includes information about research sites and schedules for both piloting and main data collection phases. The details about secondary education in Turkey and Anatolian high schools in particular were correct at the time this research was being carried out (2012-2013 academic year in Turkey).

##### **4.5.1. Research sites**

This research was carried out in two Anatolian high schools in Ankara, Turkey. Secondary education in Turkey covers two main types of high schools, which are namely general high schools and vocational and technical high schools (Ministry of National Education, 2008). Anatolian high schools were listed as one type of the general high schools (Table 4.3, accurate during the academic year this research was conducted). All administrative legislation and supervision related to these schools is carried out by the Ministry of National Education (hereafter, MoNE) in Turkey.

General High Schools	General High Schools
	Anatolian High Schools
	Science High Schools
	Social Sciences High Schools
	Anatolian Teacher Training High Schools
	Anatolian Fine Arts and Sports High Schools

Table 4.3. Types of general high schools in Turkey

Anatolian high schools were opened as ‘prestigious public schools’ that offered English as a medium of instruction. That is, the school subjects such as science and mathematics were to be delivered in the foreign language in these schools. However, this requirement was abandoned in 2002 due to some problems such as the lack of qualified subject teachers who could deliver their lessons in English (Alptekin & Tatar, 2011; Doğançay-Aktuna & Kızıltepe, 2005). According to the regulations by MoNE, class sizes in Anatolian high schools are limited to maximum 30 students. The teaching days divided into two semesters and classes were held five days a week: Monday to Friday. These schools provide at least four years of formal education for the 14-18 age group. As the present study focuses on 9<sup>th</sup> grade classrooms, the student participants were 14-15 years old during the data collection. Like all Anatolian high schools, the selected two schools also accepted their students through a very competitive nation-wide exam. English language lessons were compulsory for all 9<sup>th</sup> grade students. The lessons were offered for 6 times a week and each lesson was 45 minutes long. In Anatolian high schools, 9<sup>th</sup> graders can also have 2 lesson hours of another ‘foreign language’ lessons. In this case, German was offered in both of the selected research sites.

In both of the schools selected in this study, students took a placement test in English at the beginning of the academic year. In School A, the students were divided into two groups as A2 and B1 according to standards of the CEFR. Classroom A.0 (the



classroom in the pilot study) and A.1 were identified as level B1, and Classroom A.2 was identified as level A2. In Classroom A.2, they used *Solutions Türkiye A2* (Oxford University Press) in addition to the textbooks sent by the Ministry. In Classroom A.1, however, they mainly used *Upstream Pre-Intermediate B1* (Express Publishing) and additional photocopies as they had not received the textbooks prepared by the Ministry. In School B, all of the 9<sup>th</sup> grade classrooms were identified as level A1 according to CEFR. Therefore, Classrooms B.1 and B.2 were both identified as level A1. They used *Solutions Türkiye A1* (Oxford University Press) as supplementary resource to the textbooks sent by the Ministry. The CEFR lists A1 and A2 as ‘basic users’ and B1 as ‘independent users’ (see Appendix 1.2).

The details about the selected classrooms are given in the table below. Although all the classrooms had smart-boards, the smart-boards were not activated in the 2012-2013 academic year due to some technical issues. When they wanted to use some interactive activities or the textbook software, the teachers brought their own laptops and used the projectors in the classrooms.

Classroom	Number of students	English lesson hours (per week)	Proficiency level (CEFR)	
A.0 (Pilot)	30	6	A2	Individual desks, smart-board, white and green boards, projector, student lockers
A.1	30	6	B1	Individual desks, smart-board, white and green boards, projector, student lockers
A.2	26	6	A2	Individual desks, smart-board, white and green boards, projector, student lockers
B.1	27	6	A1	Two-student desks, smart-board, white and green boards, projector
B.2	24	6	A1	Two-student desks, smart-board, white and green boards, projector

Table 4.4 Classroom details

As for one of the contextual details, I should also note that in School A, the language teachers had their own language teachers' room separate from the main teachers' room. In the language teachers' room, they had a number of resources (e.g. textbooks, grammar and vocabulary activity books, both unabridged and abridged readings, audio materials etc.) as well as technological tools such as DVD players, a computer and a printer. The room was used only by the language teachers, which, as I observed, created somewhat visible borders excluding the language teachers from the other teachers. In School B, however, the language teachers did not have their own common room so they used the teachers' room with other teachers. Due to the limited space allocated to them, the language teachers had fewer resources stored in the room. Moreover, as I observed, the group of language teachers in School B seemed more integrated with other teachers although language teachers usually preferred to sit together around the same table.

#### **4.5.1.1. Access issues**

After I decided on my potential research sites, I contacted the principals of two Anatolian high schools through an intermediary. Although obtaining permission from MoNE was sufficient to access these schools, I wanted to find out how the principals would consider my presence as a researcher in their schools. When I received verbal confirmation from the principals, I started the formal procedures and sent the necessary documents to the Educational Counsellor of the Turkish Embassy in London. In June 2012, I obtained the official permission to conduct my research in the selected schools in Ankara (Appendix 3.2).

#### **4.5.1.2. Presenting my research**

When I went back to Turkey, I visited both of the schools in the first week of September 2012 and presented my documents to the principals (they had already received copies of the documents from MoNE). In both schools, the principals introduced me to the language teachers and asked them to help me in my study. Then, we arranged meetings with English language teachers in which I introduced myself and explained the design and purpose of my research as well as the ethical considerations. As for the purpose of my research, I told them that I was interested in materials selection and use in the classrooms and their thoughts about what could be ‘authentic’ in ELT in general. I also shared further information about the procedures (e.g. using audio-recording, introducing myself to the students). During these meetings, I also told them that I would like to be an active participant in the school context with the permission of the principal and that I could help them with lesson preparation or other related issues. Then, I asked the teachers if they were interested in participating in my research. The language teachers at School B seemed very ‘welcoming’ and enthusiastic and two of them volunteered to participate in my research (for the main phase).

The teachers at School A, however, were relatively reluctant and at the beginning they did not want to participate in my research. Except for one teacher, they stated that they would be very busy during the academic year and could not allocate time to my research. In fact, one of the teachers suggested me to find another school for the study. In another meeting, the principal told me that he could talk with the teachers and ‘ask’ them to participate in my research. However, I did not accept his offer due to ethical considerations as teachers were ‘free to decide whether or not to participate

in this study’ and I had to respect their decisions. Then I realised that teachers’ initial reactions might be because of several reasons such as (1) I was a complete ‘outsider’ in the school who wanted to observe their lessons, (2) I had official letters from MoNE so they might think that the reports/findings regarding to their lessons would be directly shared with the Ministry.

In order to overcome this situation, I decided to spend more time with the teachers and tried to introduce myself and my research closely as well as the details about ethical issues (e.g. confidentiality and privacy). Although I had planned to start the pilot study on 17 September 2012 (i.e. first day of the academic year), I could start it properly in the beginning of October. After our first meeting with the teachers at the beginning of September, I visited School A regularly every week for a month and spent time with them in the language teachers’ room during which I had lunch with them, joined their daily conversation and helped them to prepare some worksheets. At the end of this process, they ‘accepted’ me into their ‘community’ and some of them wanted to volunteer in my research. In the last week of September, one of the teachers unexpectedly invited me to her classroom and I could start the piloting phase.

#### **4.5.2. Piloting**

In research literature, it is often suggested that a researcher should pilot his/her research methods and procedures before conducting the actual project (Dörnyei, 2007, Richards, 2003). The piloting phase of the present research was conducted in the beginning of the first academic term and lasted for six weeks (September 2012 – November 2012). The main reason for allocating six weeks for piloting was that I wanted to become familiar with the research context in general and to observe the

nature of language teaching and learning experience in order to understand how I could relate the framework of authenticity to my observations and interpretations effectively. In addition, I wanted to use my research instruments and improve them to investigate this phenomenon under study efficiently.

In this phase, I observed only one classroom (i.e. Classroom A.0). During this process, one language teacher was a participant and one of her 9th grade classrooms was observed three-four times for five weeks. The classroom observation sheet presented in the next section was used during the observations. Although I planned two interviews with the teacher, I could have only one interview because she did not want to be interviewed more than that. Eight students from the classroom were interviewed two times during the pilot study. All of these interviews were audio-recorded with the permissions of the participants. Some informal talks related to lessons were also conducted with the participants but they were not audio recorded.

My initial plan was to analyse the data collected during the pilot study thoroughly and develop exploratory themes for the main study. However, due to time limit and other practical reasons, I could not analyse the data in depth. Despite this fact, I was consistently reflecting on my observation notes and interviews in order to be prepared for the following classroom observations and interview sessions. As will be discussed in Section 4.7, qualitative data analysis is a continuous and recursive process which starts with and continues during the data collection process. While I was transcribing and organising the data on my computer and reviewing them several times, I could develop possible ideas and themes for the main phase of the

study. However, I cannot overlook the fact that it would have been more beneficial and productive if I had analysed and discussed the pilot data in detail.

On the other hand, I found the pilot study very useful for me to get familiar with the school/classroom contexts and revise the research methods and techniques I used. During this period, I improved my observation and interview skills as well as my interview questions. As a result, I was more prepared for the main phase of the study.

#### **4.5.3. Main data collection**

The main data collection phases included two different 9<sup>th</sup> grade classrooms in each high school (i.e. Classrooms A.1, A.2 and B.1, B.2). During the main phase, the length of time spent at one site was more or less equal to the amount of time spent at the other site. Goddard (2010) states that this is an important issue especially in multiple-case designs where cross-case comparison of findings is likely to be conducted.

The period of main data collection involved two phases, which was divided according to the two academic terms in Turkey. Before the first phase (November 2012 – January 2013), two language teachers and two 9<sup>th</sup> grade classrooms were selected in each high school (one of the schools was the same school I had visited in the piloting phase). Four classrooms were regularly observed and four teachers and eight students in total were interviewed during this period (i.e. six week). Except for one interview with one of the teachers, all interview sessions were audio-recorded. Most of the lessons were also audio-recorded with the permission of the teachers.

After the first phase (January 2013), I went back to England and had meetings with my supervisor discussing and reflecting on the data collection process and plans for the second phase of the main study. I also presented a talk on my research at ELLTA<sup>2</sup> research group and discussed some data samples from the first phase with the group. In the second phase (February 2013 – April 2013), I continued to observe the same classrooms and interview the same participants in multiple sessions. Again, the observations and interview sessions were audio-recorded with the permission of participants. The second phase was for eight weeks.

During both pilot study and main study, we exchanged emails with my supervisor and regularly held supervision sessions through telephone, which I particularly found very useful and supportive. The detailed timetable for pilot and main data collection processes is provided in Appendix 2.1.

#### **4.5.3.1. Leaving the research sites**

At the end of the main phase, I said goodbye to the principals, the teachers and the students, and expressed my gratitude for their help and time. I also added the teachers and some of the student participants to my online social network to keep in touch with them.

#### **4.6. Research methods and techniques**

A case study is an investigation of ‘a bounded system (case) or multiple bounded systems (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information’ (Creswell, 2007, p.73). This study also involves

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<sup>2</sup> ELLTA (LLTA): English Language Learning, Teaching and Assessment research group at the Centre for Applied Linguistics, University of Warwick.

multiple sources for data collection such as field journals, interviews and documents. The main reason for using multiple methods and combining findings from data collected through these multiple methods was to practise triangulation and gain a deeper understanding about ‘the whole’ through its parts (see Johnson, 1997; Moran-Ellis, Alexander, Cronin, Dickinson, Fielding, Slaney & Thomas, 2006). Using the chosen eclectic techniques, I also aimed to analyse, compare and contrast what the participants (i.e. teachers and learners) expressed as their beliefs, thoughts and opinions (i.e. those obtained from interviews) and what they actually did in the classroom contexts (i.e. those obtained from observations and recordings). As Hornberger (1994) states, only through the process of comparing and contrasting the given dimensions we can ‘arrive at a fuller representation of what is going on’, thus get a comprehensive and multi-layered description of object of inquiry, which ultimately unveils ‘the interrelatedness of all the component parts’ in the study (p.688).

#### **4.6.1. Field journals**

In this research, field journals involved two separate but interrelated entities: field notes and researcher’s diary. Field notes included both observation notes recorded in the classroom and other notes taken on the research site. The researcher’s diary, on the other hand, reported my experiences and reflective thoughts throughout the process of data collection and analysis. As a result, the field journals included descriptive and analytic notes, as well as reflective ones.



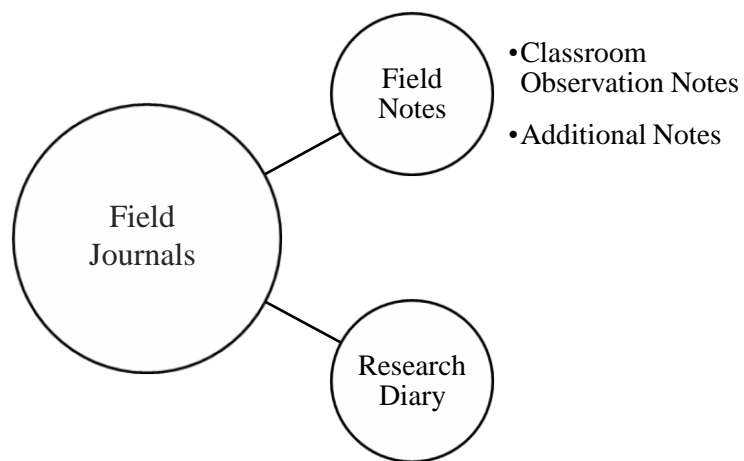


Figure 4.2. Components of field journals

The field notes included contextual information on and descriptions of the research sites and what happened in the sites by providing specific examples, quotations, comments and questions. In the field notes, additional notes consisted of any information written down in the research sites, especially during breaks or before and/or after formal sessions of classroom instruction and research interviews. Classroom observation notes, which were recorded on the classroom observation sheet, mainly focused on the instructional process in the classroom.

All of the observation notes were written in English, except for teachers' and students' utterances in Turkish. I wrote the notes in my notebook during the lessons. Then, I transcribed the notes on my personal computer within two or three days after the observation. In each lesson, I drew a rough sketch of seating arrangements and I wrote a short paragraph including the number of students, details about classroom environment and subject of the lesson or what they had studied in the previous lessons.

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION					
Classroom:		Teacher:		Date:	Field note:
Description:					
Steps	Materials	Tasks	Teacher Activity and/or Teacher's Responses	Learner Activity and/or Learners' Responses	Comments and Questions

Figure 4.3. Classroom observation sheet

A six-columned format was followed to record the classroom observation notes in digital format (see Figure 4.3). The first column was for time slots and sequences of the events. The second column was for the materials and resources used in the classroom, and the third column was for the types and titles of classroom tasks. The fourth and fifth columns were for what teachers and learners actually did during the tasks and how they responded to the events and materials. The second, third, fourth and fifth columns, therefore, were planned to address the different dimensions of authenticity discussed in the literature. The last column was for details of the classroom events and for my own comments, as well as for problematising the issues that arose during the events. This column sometimes included possible connections between what had been found significant during observations and related literature in ELT along with possible points that needed to be brought up during the interviews with the participants. That is, here, I commented on events or activities within the scope of this research, attempting to find out the nature of authentic learning and teaching experience in the lessons.

The researcher's diary, an essential part of fieldwork (Richards, 2003), involved my experiences during the fieldwork that might influence the research process. Blommaert and Jie (2010) state that fieldwork researchers usually 'travel from an innocent outsider to a knowledgeable member of the field' and they need to keep 'a record of that trajectory' (p.32). The research diary covers this journey in general and both the struggles and achievements that the researcher has experienced in this process. It also provides the researcher with the opportunity of being reflective and critical by building connections between varied information obtained from different sources at different times (Blommaert & Jie, 2010; Richards, 2003).

By combining field notes and research diary whenever it was appropriate and necessary, I aimed at supporting standard field notes with critical reflection on the research process so that the field journals could provide a richer understanding of how the notion of authenticity was investigated in this study. In fact, as stated in the Section 4.2, I believe that knowledge and meaningful realities are constructed through the interaction between the subject (e.g. the researcher) and the object (e.g. participants, data). In this way, my field journals would tell 'a story about an epistemic process' (Blommaert & Jie, 2010, p.30). Hence, they were utilised to reveal the ways in which I interpreted and analysed the data, making connections between information gathered from different phases and events. Connecting information from the field notes and the research diary, thus, were very helpful for me to document how I developed and revised particular thoughts, ideas and discussions throughout this study. In addition, it helped me be more aware of my subjective presence in the processes of data collection and analysis.

As classroom observations constituted one of the main data collection sources in this research, I will discuss it in detail in the following sub-section.

#### **4.6.1.1. Classroom observations**

Observations provide useful information about participants' behaviour in actual settings and it is often safer and more practical to use this information to develop an effective elicitation tool (Cowie, 2009; Wolfson, 1986). The main reasons for relying on classroom observation as one of the major research methods in this study were to observe what participants actually did in the classroom context and to provide empirical baseline for developing a sensitive elicitation tool (i.e. interview). Indeed, classroom observations could provide detailed and 'descriptive contextual information about the setting of targeted phenomenon' (Dörnyei, 2007, p.185), which was, in this case, the learning environment where the process of authentication was being investigated.

Creating new insights out of events and behaviours that initially seem routine and commonplace is the essence of observation in educational contexts (Walker & Aldelman, 1975). In order to achieve this, observation, as a data collection method, should not be regarded as merely a routine process, but 'a commitment' whereby researchers attempt to apply both perceptual and analytic skills systematically and genuinely in order to understand the observed event and/or phenomenon (Richards, 2003). One of the requirements of developing such a commitment is being able to reflect on observations. Richards (2003) explains being reflective in this process as reviewing observation notes and descriptions 'from different perspectives to see whether this generates different insights or different ways of understanding' (p.114).

With this purpose in mind, I systematically revisited and reflected on my notes and interpretations throughout the process.

Another issue that should be addressed during observations is the effect of observer's presence in the context that is observed (Richards, 2003). According to Labov (1972), although the aim of research is to find out how participants behave naturally when they are not being systematically observed, systematic observation is necessary to collect data to achieve this aim, and this situation creates a dilemma called the 'Observer's Paradox' (p.209). In order to minimise the effect of observer's presence in the context, I paid attention to the way I took my notes in the classroom such as sitting at the back of the classroom, taking my notes without distracting others or drawing their attention, or spending a relatively long time in the research sites to help learners and teachers get accustomed to my presence.

The nature of classroom observation can be grouped in two types: participant vs. non-participant observations and structured vs. unstructured observations. Participant observation is described as becoming a member of the observed group and taking active roles in the events (Dörnyei, 2007; Wragg, 1999; Yin, 2009). However, this type of observation does not mean that observers have to 'take a full part in whatever activity is going on' (Cowie, 2009, p.167). Participant observation can also take place outside the classroom such as talking with learners or teachers while 'waiting to go into lessons or walking to the next lesson' (Gordon, Holland, Lahelma & Tolonen, 2005, p.116). Yin (2009) highlights that participant observation, which provides an opportunity to 'perceive reality from the viewpoint of someone insider the case', has an important role in case study designs (p.112). This technique helps

researchers gain an emic perspective. Non-participant observation, on the other hand, is described as having no or minimal involvement in the setting and group activities. I believe that the role of observers should be considered as a part of a dynamic process in the continuum of engagement in the research context and with research participants. In other words, my involvement and participation as a researcher increased throughout the time I spent in the research sites. As expected due to the nature of this study, I could not be a non-participant observer because it would have been artificial and unproductive in terms of data richness and quality. However, I could not become a full participant in the classroom either. I could involve myself in activities not as a student or as an ‘official’ teacher, but as a researcher and in some cases as a ‘teacher’ who was conducting research.

Regarding the structure, the present research involves semi-structured classroom observations. That is, the process did not involve highly structured or totally unstructured classroom observations. Structured observations follow a prepared observation scheme or checklists, whereas unstructured observations involve taking notes or drawing diagrams about the emerging events that researchers consider as significant or useful without using any fixed scheme (Dörnyei, 2007). Although there was no fixed and detailed checklist for classroom observations, the study focused on classroom instruction and interactions within the frame of authentic teaching and learning experience in ELT, encompassing particular components of classroom context. In addition, in order to understand the dynamics and complexity of the classroom context, the observations included emerging behaviours, responses and patterns in the classroom instruction. By doing this, I also aimed to elicit a detailed picture of the language classroom as a cultural context that could influence

the process of authentication. The numerical details of my classroom observations are listed in the table below:

<b>Classrooms</b>	<b>Observation notes</b>	<b>Number of lessons observed (each lesson 45 mins)</b>
A.0 (pilot)	10 notes (4 of them audio recorded)	14 lessons
A.1	13 notes (10 audio recorded)	25 lessons
A.2	13 notes (9 audio recorded)	24 lessons
B.1	13 notes (11 audio recorded)	26 lessons
B.2	14 notes (10 audio recorded)	25 lessons

Table 4.5. Classroom observations

I observed similar numbers of lessons in each classroom mainly because of the nature of this study (i.e. multiple case study) and this can be seen in Table 4.5 above. I also audio-recorded most of the lessons during the main data collection phase.

#### **4.6.2. Interviews**

In the present study, semi-structured interviews were conducted to systematically elicit participants' experiences, perceptions, views and opinions about the emerging and potential conditions, as well as to find out the extent to which they engage with and respond to the learning and teaching experience. Although a set of guiding questions and prompts was prepared before interviews, the format was open-ended and comparatively flexible, which was sensitive to interviewees' responses and additional explanations. As Dörnyei (2007) stresses, unlike highly structured interviews, which are mostly like written questionnaires, semi-structured interviews provide a space for 'variation or spontaneity in the responses' (p.135). Moreover semi-structured interviews can include a relatively detailed interview guide that illustrates certain aspects of the content and form of the interview.

A well-designed interview guide for semi-structured interview should contain suggestions and questions to be used for probing additional information (Johnson, 1992; Richards, 2009b). Some of the main functions of the interview guide can be listed as (1) to state the main goal of the interview clearly, (2) to help interviewer ensure that the target point is properly covered, (3) to offer a list of appropriate questions which can be used if it is necessary, (4) to list some suggestions and comments to be taken into consideration before, during and after the interview (Dörnyei, 2007; Richards, 2003; 2009b). Bearing these functions in mind, an interview guide was prepared in the piloting phase and it was revised for main data collection. At the beginning of the main data collection phase, a preliminary interview guide, which had been prepared and revised during the pilot phase, was used with all participants including general questions about their experiences, expectations and overall thoughts about the classroom instruction. Following interviews were mainly shaped with the help of classroom observation notes and the interview guide was revised accordingly for each occasion. A sample of interview guide that was used at the beginning of the study is presented in Appendix 2.2. This guide includes general topics developed from the literature review, sub-topics and some key questions (as suggested by Richards, 2003; 2009b), as well as examples of particular classroom incidents. The preliminary guide, therefore, addressed topics such as materials use in the classroom and teachers' and students' engagement in the classroom activities including their responses to emerging conditions in the classroom.

Conducting an interview is a dynamic process, which is co-constructed with both the interviewer's and interviewee's contributions. Dörnyei (2007) describes this process



as ‘a co-constructed social exchange in which taking a stance becomes unavoidable’ (p.141). The content and context of interviews are collaboratively produced by interviewer and interviewee for each particular interview occasion and setting (Cohen et al., 2011; Mann, 2011; Walford, 2001, 2009). Moreover, as Holstein and Gubrium (1995) state, interviewing is not only about seeking for information but also about ‘cultivating meaning-making’ through social interaction (p.5). During my data collection process, I also experienced that interviews could be ‘co-obstructed’ by the participants (i.e. interviewer and interviewee) as well. In one particular case in the pilot study, for example, the interviewee’s short and somewhat reluctant responses affected my mood negatively, thus affected how I asked the questions and how the interviewee responded to them. As a result, we had to finish the interview earlier than I had planned.

In addition to the co-constructed nature of interviews, there are other factors that one should take into consideration while conducting interviews. These factors can include the roles, status and influences of the interviewer, of the context where the interview takes place and of interview process itself (Cohen et al., 2011; Mann, 2011; Walford, 2001). According to Mann (2011), we can discuss interview context from two aspects: research context, which includes physical and temporal issues, and interactional context. In this research, I paid attention to both the interview setting (e.g. physical features of the place, the presence of a tape recorder) and the interactional context (e.g. using L1 during the interview, potential effect of previous turns on the following turns).

The teachers were given the opportunity to be interviewed either in Turkish or in English. All of them chose to conduct the interviews in Turkish. The students were not given such an opportunity because of their relatively low proficiency level of English and in order to create a comfortable and genuine environment for the interviews. As a result, I conducted the interviews in Turkish with all of the participants. I transcribed the interviews in the language they had been conducted (i.e. Turkish) and analysed the content using a computer programme called NVivo (see Section 4.7.3). I translated the interview excerpts into English only if I used them in the research report. The translation issue will be addressed in detail in Section 4.7.2.

In this study, I conducted multiple interview sessions with participants individually. As authenticity is ‘a relative matter’ and ‘individual’ (Breen, 1985a; Badger, 2011), I believe that conducting interviews with participants individually instead of conducting focus group interviews could provide me with the opportunity to elicit more specific and in-depth information from the participants, and it let me see things from their individual perspective.

The main purpose of the interviews was to elicit the participants’ perceptions, comments and reasoning related to the classroom materials, activities and emerging responses and reactions during the lessons. The questions were mainly generated from my observation notes and related literature on authenticity, and they were to be shaped within the actual interview context each time. At the end, along with the observations, they seek to explore the nature of the process of authentication by the

students and the teachers. The term ‘authenticity’ was explicitly addressed only in the interviews with the teacher.

The students were interviewed more than once while the teachers were interviewed only twice during the process of main data collection. Except for one interview session, all of the sessions were audio-recorded with the permission of the participants. As for the one in which I could not use the audio recorder since the teacher did not give me the permission, I took written notes during the interview and transcribed them on my personal computer shortly after the interview. A relatively small voice recorder that could capture high quality audio was used. I sometimes took short notes during the interviews to use them as probes later. Presenting a list of possible strengths and weaknesses of using audio-recording and note-taking during interviews, Nunan (1992) states that while audio recording can be very useful to record ‘actual language’ used by the participants, note-taking helps the interviewer record the central issues simultaneously (p.152-153).

The details about the interviews conducted in the main study are shown in the table below in which ‘TT’ refers to the teacher trainees and participating teachers are marked with ‘(T)’.

School	Classroom	Participants (pseudonyms)	Number of interviews	Duration (mins)	Place
A	A.1	Kamile (T)	2	25 – 27	language teachers' room
		Ezgi	4	12 – 25	meeting room
		Yusuf	6	12 – 29	meeting room
	A.2	Asuman (T)	2	22 – 25	language teachers' room
		Beyza	5	10 – 20	meeting room
		Emre	6	8 – 18	meeting room
		TTs	1	26	waiting lounge
B	B.1	Sevgi (T)	2	16 – 28	teachers' room
		Nilay	8	5 – 23	library
		Yakup	6	5 – 17	library
		TT	1	50	cafe
	B.2	Faruk (T)	2	12 – 16	chess room
		Emir	6	4 – 22	library
		Gizem	5	5 – 13	library
		TTs	1	15	chess room

Table 4.6. Interviews

I used an evaluation guide presented by Richards (2003) to reflect on the interviews in order to improve my interviews and practice my skills (see Appendix 2.3). All in all, as Dilley (2000) underlines, interviewing is ‘an interactive art, not a science’ and ‘a form of apprenticeship is often the best way to learn it’ (p.134). As I mentioned before, the pilot study was particularly useful for me to revise and improve my interviews.

I revised the template suggested by Richards (2003) for interview transcript format and used a template with five columns (see Figure 4.4 below): a ‘turn-taking’ numbering system (instead of line numbers), speakers’ pseudonymous names, main text (in Turkish), translated text (in English) and space for my comments and notes. A sample interview transcription can be found in Appendix 2.5 and transcription conventions used in the interviews can be found in Appendix 2.4.

Turns	Speaker	Content		Notes
		Turkish	English	
01				
02				
03				
04				
05				
06				
07				
08				
09				
10				
11				
12				
13				
14				
15				
16				
17				
18				
19				
20				
21				
22				
23				
24				
25				

Figure 4.4. Interview transcription sheet

I also conducted very short and informal interviews/talks with the students and the teachers before and/or after the lessons. Most of these talks were not audio-recorded due to the spontaneous nature of them, but they were recorded as written notes in my field notes right after the occasions.

#### 4.6.3. Documents

In addition to classroom observation and interviews, I also collected documents from the research context. Merriam (2009) uses the term ‘document’ as a general term covering ‘a wide range of written, visual, digital, and physical materials relevant to the study at hand’ (p.139). In the present study, I use the term to refer to materials and texts used or produced in/for the classroom. In this sense, documents involved extracts from textbooks, students’ written works and other physical or digital materials used in the classroom. Johnson (1992) states that collecting such documents helps researchers gain ‘a holistic view’ of the context and the unit that is being studied.

The documents that I had collected were sometimes used during the interviews because of their potential contribution to help me elicit detailed information from the participants. Indeed, those documents/extracts were very useful to elicit participants' thoughts and perceptions about materials and activities in the classroom as well as participants' engagement with them.

The documents were also used in the written reports in order to provide rich contextualisation while presenting and discussing the findings. In terms of the copyright issues related to the extracts from the textbooks, I contacted both the academic support manager (University of Warwick Library) and the publishers via e-mail. The e-mail responses from the publishers (i.e. Express Publishing and OUP) can be found in Appendix 3.1.

#### **4.7. Data analysis methods**

Since the present study follows the qualitative research tradition, particular principles and strategies for qualitative data analysis have been adopted. Furthermore, as Stake (2005) highlights, a case study can be regarded as both 'a process of inquiry about the case' and 'the product of that inquiry' (p.444). Therefore, procedures for analysing 'qualitative case study data' have been taken into consideration in particular.

##### **4.7.1. Qualitative data analysis**

Data analysis includes the process of defining key features and connections in the data to produce meaningful interpretations (Merriam, 1998; Richards, 2003). In qualitative research, data analysis is not completely 'a distinct stage' but 'something that is happening throughout the whole research process' (Richards, 2003, p.268).

The main characteristics of qualitative data analysis can be listed as: (1) it is ‘inherently’ a language-based analysis and concerned with interpreting the underlying meaning of the data (2) it follows a non-linear and recursive process, (3) there is likely to be a tension between subjective intuitions of the researcher and formalised analytical procedures, and (4) there might be a tension between adopting a specific methodology or using general ‘analytical moves’ as well (Dörnyei, 2007, p.243-245). Here, one of the most distinctive features of qualitative research is that it is flexible and recursive in terms of data collection, analysis and interpretation.

A qualitative design is emergent and data-led. Specific data categories/themes and following data collection plans are often developed inductively as the data is being analysed (Dörnyei, 2007; Merriam, 1998; 2009; Thorne, 2000). In qualitative studies, researchers should start analysing the data simultaneously with data collection so that they can make the necessary changes in the research plan accordingly. Without ongoing analysis, the data can be unfocused, repetitious and too much in terms of its amount (Merriam, 1998).

Referring to Coffey and Atkinson’s (1996) description, Richards (2003) also states that qualitative data analysis is not a mechanistic process, but a flexible, artful and imaginative one. Here, one should always bear ‘the interrelationship between data, analysis and interpretation’ in mind, and make decisions about systematic analytic methods suggested by the data themselves and the literature (p.269). At this point, being reflective can be regarded as an essential demand for a rigorous qualitative research analysis.

Considering the particular research philosophy and design of this study, my stance and presence as a researcher and the interaction between me and the participants have been taken into account during this reflective process of interpreting and analysing the data. In fact, Merriam (1998) underlines that rigour in qualitative research derives from ‘the nature of interaction between researcher and participants, the interpretation of perceptions and rich, thick descriptions’ (p.151).

In short, qualitative data analysis is an ongoing and dynamic process, which occurs simultaneously with data collection. It can be also portrayed as ‘assembling a jigsaw puzzle’ through which one needs to select his/her work area, arrange pieces into groups, work on similar pieces in the groups and identify the linking pieces between different sets of pieces (LeCompte, 2000, p.147). As Dörnyei (2007) explicitly states, the main challenge for a researcher conducting qualitative research is ‘to achieve rigorous flexibility and disciplined artfulness’ in this process (p.245).

#### **4.7.2. Data analysis procedure**

This study, by its very nature, involves an inductive, interpretive and recursive process of data collection and analysis. In the literature on qualitative research, four general phases of qualitative content analysis are usually listed as (1) transcribing and organising the data, (2) coding, (3) constructing categories and/or themes and (4) interpreting and discussing the data as research evidence. Following these steps, I have been analysing the content of field journals, interviews and documents within the scope of this study.

Addressing these general phases, Richards (2003) describes different steps of analysis in detail as (1) collecting the data; (2) thinking about the relationship



between the research objectives and the data; (3) coding the data; (4) reflecting and revising the codes; and (5) creating categories, making concrete connections between concepts, theories and the data to understand the deeper meanings and to collect further data according to insights gained during this process. These steps have been systematically followed in this study and it is worth noting that they are also in line with the phases of thematic analysis presented by Braun and Clarke (2006).

Phase	Description of the process
1. Familiarizing yourself with your data	Transcribing data (if necessary), reading and re-reading the data, noting down initial ideas
2. Generating initial codes	Coding interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across the entire data set, collating data relevant to each code
3. Searching for themes	Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme
4. Reviewing themes	Checking if themes work in relation to the coded extracts (Level 1) and the entire data set (Level 2) generating a thematic ‘map’ of the analysis
5. Defining and naming themes	Ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells, generating clear definitions and names for each theme
6. Producing the report	The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis

Table 4.7. Phases of thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p.87)

Table 4.7 above shows the description of each phase in thematic analysis listed by Braun and Clarke (2006). While providing a clear guideline, the authors stress that thematic analysis is flexible and it ‘potentially provides a rich and detailed, yet complex, account of data’ (*ibid.*, p.78). The steps followed in this study are similar to these phases in Table 4.7 and they are somewhat interwoven and likely to occur simultaneously. For example, while transcribing and getting familiar with the data, I started taking notes on the transcriptions and drafted the initial codes. Therefore,

although they are discussed here individually, it is not very realistic in practice to consider them as neatly-separated stages.

#### **4.7.2.1. Transcribing and organising the data**

At this stage, the data were transferred to electronic environment (i.e. my personal computer) and transcribed in a textual form. The data obtained through interviews and field journals were organised systematically in files to facilitate the analysis process (e.g. school-based, classroom-based). By organising all the data obtained from each case systematically, I aimed at developing a case study database (Yin, 2009).

Classroom observation notes were transcribed regularly within two or three days after the observation. Each observation note was stored in a file created for individual classrooms. As interviews had been conducted in Turkish, they were transcribed in Turkish as well. Excerpts from these interviews were translated into English only if they were used in the thesis. As I am more interested in the content rather than the form of the spoken data, I did not include many transcription symbols and technical details in my transcriptions (see Appendix 2.4. for the transcription conventions). Unlike observations, I could not transcribe the interviews on the computer very quickly. As a result, the last interviews could only be transcribed after the period of data collection, which is not usually desirable in qualitative research. However, I listened to the audio-recordings of the interviews during data collection period and took notes for the following sessions.

As mentioned in the previous section, the qualitative data collection and analysis are usually carried out recursively. Therefore, my initial notes and comments on the field

journals and interview transcriptions were part of the initial analysis of collected data.

#### **4.7.2.2. Coding and structuring categories**

I started the process of ‘intensive analysis’ after I finished the scheduled data collection process. In this process, the researcher often attempts to produce provisional findings that s/he revises and re-arranges continuously (Merriam, 1998, 2009). Labelling chunks or segments of text according to the connections between content and the research objectives is called ‘coding’. The process of coding usually involves more than one phase during which the researcher reads and re-reads the transcripts, reflects on the data collected and takes notes about possible interpretations (Dörnyei, 2007; Merriam, 1998).

Initial coding provides the researcher with a general sense of the data and descriptive patterns in the data. At this stage, parts that are related to the research questions and objectives are grouped and labelled broadly in order to compose descriptive accounts of the data. Here, the aim is not to produce a set of categories, but to make data segments more manageable and ‘to generate a set of labels from which categories can be derived’ (Richards, 2003, p.273). Dörnyei (2007) states that this initial process should be followed by ‘a more formal and structured coding process’ (p.250). That is, after initial coding, the researcher should aim at building deeper connections between relevant data units and the study so that s/he can move towards the process of categorisation.

Category construction involves the process of bringing the units of data, which have been produced after coding, together again by grouping them under broader

labels/classes (Merriam, 1998; 2009). Richards (2003) states that ‘an adequate category’ should have some essential features such as being conceptually coherent, analytically useful, empirically relevant and practically applicable (p.276). Likewise, (Merriam, 1998) states that categories should reflect the purpose of the research and they should be mutually exclusive, conceptually congruent and clear (p.184). The number of categories was decided during the data analysis process as the study had an inductive nature. That is, it depended on the data and the purpose of the study. The only criterion was, as Merriam (1998) states, that the number of categories should be manageable for the researcher.

It should be borne in mind that categories, derived from the initial codes, are not the data themselves but concepts ‘indicated by the data’ (Merriam, 1998, p.179). That is, the researcher needs to move from surface-level description of the data to abstractions that classify and link the segments of the data. Category types and names can be derived from other sources besides the data themselves. References such as the researcher’s own notes or the literature and the theoretical context might also offer category types and names (Richards, 2003). No matter what their sources are, categories should be framed in a systematic way according to the purpose of the study and philosophical orientation of the researcher (Merriam, 1998). After categorisation, I moved to a phase in which I made inferences from the categories to develop and define broader themes.

After I transcribed and organised all of the data on my personal computer, I used NVivo (QSR International Pty Ltd. Version 10, 2012) to systematically and intensively analyse the data sources. Coding was conducted within each data

collection method after which emerging codes were grouped to build potential categories and themes. That is, all data sources from the units of analysis (i.e. classrooms) were examined inductively as potential generators of new codes rather than set of codes were derived from analysis of only part of the data set and then applied to other data. Appendices 5.1, 6.1, 7.1 and 8.1 involve samples of the data analysis from the embedded units (i.e. classrooms) in this study. In addition, the following table illustrates the details of the overall process of coding and structuring categories that I followed during the data analysis.

Field journals and documents	Interviews
(1) <i>Initial coding</i> – (during data collection) I used my initial interpretation and comments to shape the following interviews with the participants.	(2) <i>Initial coding</i> – I reviewed the interviews individually in a chronological order. During the pilot study and after the first phase of the main study, I shared some of the interview transcriptions with the participants to learn more about their comments and statements. However, I could not do this in the second phase.
(3) <i>Focused coding</i> – I reviewed the notes thoroughly and chronically. Possible codes were set inductively.	(4) <i>Focused coding</i> – I reviewed the interviews thoroughly and compared the initial codes with the codes from the field journals.
(5) <i>Categorisation and developing themes</i> – I grouped the similar codes. But I developed the final categories and themes after comparing the codes from the field journals and interview.	
This process was repeated for each unit of analysis (i.e. classrooms). For example, after I had finished analysing and interpreting the data sources from Classroom A.1, developing themes inductively and presenting some themes as findings, I started analysing the data sources obtained from Classroom B.1.	

Table 4.8. Coding the field journals and interviews

In this study, the data analysis was conducted through a *contextual coding* process. That is, emerging codes from each unit of analysis (i.e. classrooms) were developed and grouped around specific classroom incidents which provided contextual details related to these codes (e.g. classroom task, a dialogue between students and teachers,

a specific topic). In each classroom, the codes were developed separately for the interviews and observations, and they were grouped under the same contextual labels (see Appendices 5.1, 6.1, 7.1 and 8.1). This helped me to organise the codes in a more manageable way and interpret them within the unique contextual conditions in which they had been observed.

The observation notes were recorded, transcribed and analysed in English. Since the interviews had been conducted and transcribed in Turkish, coding was done based on the Turkish contents of the interviews. The main reasons for analysing the interviews in Turkish were (1) to review and start initial coding soon after transcriptions and (2) to pay attention participants' utterances with their own word-choices. Moreover, as Temple and Young (2006) claims, early attempts to translate the research texts (e.g. interviews) might cause a relative lack of understanding of 'the ties between language and identity/culture' of the participants (p.174). Although the analysis was conducted on the original transcriptions (i.e. in Turkish), the codes were developed and labelled in English in order to create a consistency in coding. This helped me to easily compare the codes with the ones developed from the other sources.

The interview contents used in the thesis to present, discuss and elaborate these categories and inferences were translated into English. Mann (2011) states that this situation may cause 'translation complexities' and it should be addressed explicitly in presentation of the data. In fact, in some cases, I used member-checking as a strategy to enhance validity and shared my translations with teacher interviewees. In most cases, however, I translated the content into Turkish, and if it was necessary, I shared the original content, my translation and the tentative codes I developed from

the data with a colleague who was a proficient speaker of Turkish and English languages.

It is observed that the issue of translation has been usually neglected in social-science research (see Halai, 2007; Temple & Young, 2006). Temple and Young (2006) stress that this issue should be recognised by researchers particularly due to its epistemological, ontological and methodological implications. My role in this study as a researcher also includes translating the excerpts from Turkish into English. Temple and Young (2006) state the translator always makes his/her 'mark' on the research. As a result, while I aim at providing accurate and somewhat 'literal' translation of participants' original utterances, those utterances in English may carry my 'mark' in the presentation as well. In order to make this 'mark' visible to the reader, I inserted some footnotes when there was a need for explanations about particular word choices and other translation issues.

#### **4.7.2.3. Interpretation and discussion**

To achieve successful data analysis, the process of interpretation should be integrated with categorisation (Dörnyei, 2007; LeCompte, 2000; Richards, 2003). In fact, from the beginning of data collection and analysis, the researcher attempts to make inferences and develop 'increasingly abstract analytical insights into the underlying meanings' (Dörnyei, 2007, p.257). However, a period of 'intense interpretation and discussion' usually starts after constructing tentative categories and selecting the ones to be focused. At this stage, researcher's interpretations and analyses can intrinsically lead to 'the emergence of theoretical elaboration' (Richards, 2003, p.280). Considering the circular interaction between data collection

and analysis, it is inevitable that interpreting the categories and selected segments of the data leads to inferences about future activity in the research process.

As the present study adopts an embedded, multiple-case design, the process involves collecting and analysing data from more than one unit of analysis. Merriam (1998, 2009) states that in multiple case studies there are two stages of data analysis: within-case analysis and cross-case analysis (p.204). As mentioned before, the data sets were coded and analysed within individual unit of analysis (see the findings chapters). Then, I conducted cross-case analysis and identified similarities and differences of emerging codes and categories across cases as well as units of analysis (see the discussion chapter). At this point, I tried to address both the particularity and the commonality of data sets from each case. As Merriam (1998, 2009) and Yin (2009) underline, in multiple case analysis researchers can seek to build a general explanation that fits all the cases while discerning and recording distinctive details of each case under study.

Finally, as I have a constructivist orientation in the present study, I also aim to provide explicit evidence of my position and presence in the process of ‘co-construction’ of the data interpreted. For example, I shared relatively long interview extracts along with excerpts from other data sources to address the extent to which my questions and responses might have influenced interviewees’ responses, or how interviewees’ responses might have affected the following questions during this process.



#### **4.7.2.4. Selection and presentation of themes and data extracts**

The selection and presentation of the data extracts in the findings chapters (Chapters 5-8) have been conducted according to the following criteria or reasons: (1) they provide essential contextual information about the classroom events and/or themes described in the chapter, (2) the extracts are linked to each other or to a broader theme in the process of data analysis, and (3) they are considered as representations of departure points or responses in a sequence of data presentation. The list of transcription conventions used in the presentation of the extracts from the classroom observations and interviews can be found in Appendix 2.4.

In the analysis process, a number of themes were developed inductively in each unit of analysis (see Appendix 4.1). The main criteria for the selection of the themes and samples in the findings chapters can be listed as (1) the variety and richness of the data sources composing these themes, (2) their potential for demonstrating the common practices by the students and their teacher in each classroom during the period of my classroom observations, (3) their clear implications for the nature of interaction between different components presented in the model in Chapter 3 (e.g. text, task and learners), and for the contextual factors both in classroom and in broader levels (e.g. explicit pedagogical references in the lesson and students' daily lives outside the classroom). Thus, the themes selected seek to address the research questions of this study.

#### **4.7.3. Using computer software**

As Yin (2009) states, the software does not analyse the data for the researcher, but it can function as a very useful and reliable tool. One of the advantages of computer-aided qualitative data analysis (CAQDAS) is that it helps the researcher handle a

large amount of (textual) data effectively and quickly by providing easy indexing options. Besides, it facilitates both within- and cross-case analyses. It can also be considered as a tool that allows for more sensitive and interactive coding process. Furthermore, it gives the researcher the opportunity to create ‘a semantic map’ of the case study and visualise the relationships both among and within categories. Finally, it can enhance the quality of the study and help the improvement of rigour in data management and analysis (Basset, 2010; Dörnyei, 2007; Merriam, 2009, Yin, 2009).

While managing and analysing the data, I used NVivo-10 (QSR International Pty Ltd. Version 10, 2012), computer software which is specifically developed for qualitative data analysis. NVivo-10 enables the researcher to store and analyse a variety of sources such as text documents, audio files and images. Using a computer programme to store and manage the data was more practical and appropriate than using index cards or hardcopy documents as I was travelling between Turkey and the United Kingdom during the process of data collection and analysis. Moreover, as I adopted an embedded, multiple-case design for my study and had a large number of data sources, the software helped me deal with them efficiently and build visual connections between a variety of data samples obtained from different contexts and participants. This visualisation provide ‘contextual connections’ (Blommaert & Jie, 2010) through which findings from one context (i.e. time, place or participant) can be connected to the other findings from another context. The reasons for choosing NVivo software particularly rather than other computer products developed for qualitative research analysis are that (1) I found the interface of the NVivo workspace more convenient and easy to use, (2) I could download the programme free of charge from Warwick University’s website, and (3) I could access a number

of resources about how to use the programme (e.g. workshops and online tutorials). In order to get familiar with the software and its functions, I attended two training workshops conducted by Warwick University Information Technology Services in June 2012.

However, there are also possible disadvantages of CAQDAS and I bore those in mind while using the software. First, dealing with the data electronically rather than on paper may put a distance between the researcher and the data. Second, it may result in a relatively technical process in which the researcher can focus on particular segments and miss the bigger context. Third, there may be a danger of collecting and storing too much data when one uses CAQDAS and finally, there is always a possibility of losing the electronic data (Dörnyei, 2007; Merriam, 2009).

#### **4.8. Validity and reliability**

Although the terms of ‘validity’ and ‘reliability’ are usually associated with quantitative research principles, qualitative researchers also need to pay attention to such concerns in order to produce research outcomes that are trustworthy and rigorous (Dörnyei, 2007; Golafshani, 2003; Merriam, 2009; Morse, Barrett, Mayan, Olson & Spiers, 2002). Following Lincoln and Guba’s (1985) concept of ‘trustworthiness’ in qualitative research, some researchers use the criteria of ‘credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability’ in evaluating the quality of qualitative studies (Table 4.9). However, although these terms are particularly developed for qualitative inquiry, they share the common underlying rationale with the terms ‘validity’ and ‘reliability.’ Stating that these two terms should be maintained in qualitative research, Morse et al. (2002) claims that ‘introducing parallel terminology and criteria marginalizes qualitative inquiry from

mainstream science and scientific legitimacy’ (p.16). That is, rather than developing alternative labels researchers should clarify what the terms ‘validity’ and ‘reliability’ particularly refer to in qualitative inquiry. As I also embrace a similar view, I prefer to discuss the quality of this study in terms of ‘validity’ and ‘reliability.’

Four aspects of the quality of ‘empirical social research’ that are frequently listed in research literature are construct validity, internal validity, external validity and reliability (Yin, 2009). As I embrace a constructivist orientation, I value multiple, subjective realities, and as Golafshani (2003) underlines, ‘to acquire valid and reliable multiple and diverse realities, multiple methods of searching or gathering data are in order’ (p.604). Bearing in mind the fact that the present study adopted an interpretive and context-bound qualitative case study design, these four aspects were addressed accordingly throughout the research project.

	Terms proposed for qualitative research in particular (Lincoln and Guba, 1985)
Internal validity	Credibility
External validity	Transferability
Reliability	Dependability

Table 4.9. Terms for quality criteria in qualitative research

Construct validity refers to being able to establish appropriate ‘operational measures’ for the concepts under investigation (Yin, 2009, p.40). Internal validity is concerned with ‘the question of how research findings match reality’ (Merriam, 1998, p.201). As stated in the section about epistemological and ontological orientations, the present study, indeed, does not attempt to ‘discover the reality out there’ but to describe and explain peoples’ constructions of reality within its scope. In this sense, validity is concerned with the inferences drawn from the data rather than the data themselves (Creswell & Miller, 2000). In order to enhance internal validity, I have

applied some strategies during the data collection period such as using multiple methods/sources to check my interpretation of participants' behaviours and of the emerging findings from my observations, as well as spending sufficient time in the research site. Johnson (1997) states that using multiple methods (e.g. observation, interview) provides the researcher with 'method triangulation' (p.288), and using multiple data sources (e.g. multiple observations, multiple interviews) provides 'data triangulation' (p.289). In the present study, I used both strategies.

External validity deals with the extent to which a study's findings can be 'generalised.' It should be noted that 'generalisability' is 'more than a matter of counting' (Lazaraton, 1995, p.465) and it 'plays a different role in qualitative research than it does in quantitative research' (Dörnyei, 2007, p.59). Qualitative case studies, by their very nature, aims at understanding 'the particular' in depth, therefore the results cannot be presented as valid and accurate for every similar context and/or subject (Merriam, 1998, 2009; Yin, 2009). That is, the aim of qualitative research is not to discover 'the universal reality' observed by the many (Merriam, 1998) but to investigate reality(-ies) observed within the research context. Therefore, the present study addresses the concept of generalisability in terms of the philosophical underpinnings of qualitative case study design, which adopts 'analytic' rather than 'statistical' generalisation (see Cohen et al., 2011; Yin, 2009).

One of the misunderstandings about the qualitative case study is that 'one cannot generalise on the basis of an individual case, therefore the case study cannot contribute to scientific development' (see Flyvbjerg, 2006; 2011). However, Flyvbjerg (2011) claims that even though it is not 'formally generalisable',

knowledge may be transferable to similar contexts (p.305). Unlike quantitative research, which seeks statistical generalisation, qualitative research usually relies on analytical generalisation. Here, some findings and ideas from the study can be generalised in a theoretical sense (Dörnyei, 2007; Yin, 2009). In other words, a theory developed within a particular case context(s) may be generalised to some broader theory and can help to make sense of similar situations. As Blommaert and Jie (2010) claims, although data and findings are obtained through highly context-dependent and interpretive means, such data ‘instantiate a case, and such a case belongs to a larger category of cases’ (p.13).

Another conceptualisation of generalisability in qualitative research, which was addressed explicitly in this study, is reader, or user, generalisability. Merriam (1998) states that if the case study investigator provides a rich and detailed description of the process, context and findings of his/her study, readers can compare those with their own contexts and consider whether it is possible to apply those findings to their situations. This detailed description of the research process along with researcher’s accounts for theoretical orientation and reflexivity also helps reader to see the consistency or reliability of the research. In the present study, presenting rich descriptions of contexts and procedures of data collection and analysis, I investigated the notion of authenticity in two main cases each of which had a pair of embedded units. Furthermore, both within-case and cross-case comparison were carried out during and after the data analysis process to enhance external validity.

In a traditional sense, reliability refers to the extent to which the procedures and findings of research can be repeated with the same outcomes (Merriam, 1998; Yin,

2009). Merriam (1998) states that as social studies deal with human behaviour and 'human behaviour is never static', the term reliability is somehow problematic in such studies. In fact, it can be claimed that achieving absolute reliability in qualitative studies is 'not only fanciful but impossible' in terms of replicating the results (*ibid.*, p.206). Therefore, what is important here is that the results and interpretations are consistent and dependable with the data collected and analysed (Merriam, 1998, 2009; Nunan, 1992). In other words, as Richards (2003) states, reliability is 'a matter of being able to depend on getting the same reading if we follow the same procedures' (p.285). In order to achieve this, thus making the process more reliable and dependable, I provided adequate documentation and rich descriptions of the research process.

As for the reliability of research methods during data collection, I addressed this issue in at least three levels. First, the research methods (e.g. classroom observation, interview) had been carefully designed considering the rationale behind using these methods and the interconnected relationships between them. Furthermore, these methods/techniques were continuously revised and improved during both piloting and main data collection phases. Second, I aimed to improve myself as a researcher through practising and reflecting on my practices during both data collection and analysis periods. As Merriam (1998, 2009) states, the researcher is 'the human instrument' in qualitative case study design so s/he needs to train himself/herself to enhance reliability. Finally, a detailed account of procedures was recorded throughout the study.

In short, I paid attention to issues of validity and reliability in order to promote the quality of this study. Furthermore, the following strategies were used in this study (for detailed lists of strategies used to enhance validity and reliability in qualitative research, see Creswell & Miller, 2000; Johnson, 1997; Merriam, 2009):

Triangulation	Multiple research methods and sources were used for data collection (i.e. interviews, classroom observations, documents and research diary). The relationships between data obtained through these methods and emerging findings have been checked throughout the study.
Member checking	Tentative interpretations were sometimes shared with the participants from whom the data had been obtained. I believe that multiple (formal and informal) interview sessions also provided invaluable feedback from the participants about how accurately participants' realities had been interpreted.
Adequate engagement in data collection	The main data collection was carried out in two phases over a period of time. The tentative numbers of interviews and classroom observations were set according to obtain enough data.
Researcher's reflexivity	This involves awareness of and self-reflection on the potential biases and personal assumptions that may affect the research process. In order to raise my awareness, I kept a researcher's diary during both data collection and analysis periods. I also combined it with the field notes whenever it was necessary or appropriate.
Audit trail	The procedures and 'decision points' in data collection and analysis were aimed to be recorded clearly. During this process, I sometimes consulted my supervisor as well.
Rich description	I aimed at providing a sufficiently detailed description of contexts and procedures in order to allow readers to determine whether findings and implications can be transferable in their own contexts.

Table 4.10. Strategies for validity and reliability

#### 4.9. Ethics

This study was conducted in accordance with the ethical framework specified by the University of Warwick and MoNE in Turkey. I completed the Ethical Approval Form of the University of Warwick and submitted it to the ethics committee before the data collection. As I was sponsored by MoNE and the main research sites were two state high schools in Turkey, I had to inform the Educational Counsellor of the Turkish Embassy in London about my intention to gain access to the schools for data



collection. The relevant regulation of MoNE explicitly states that the research proposal and research instruments cannot be prepared against national and moral values and personal rights of participants. Therefore, I sent my research proposal, in which I clearly addressed ethical considerations, and a formal letter from my supervisor to the Educational Counsellor. Obtaining the permission from MoNE (Appendix 3.2), I had meetings with principals and English language teachers in the selected schools in September 2012. In these meetings, the teachers were informed about the overall purpose of the study and the data collection procedures (e.g. using an audio-recorder). For classroom observations, the students were also informed about the overall purpose and design of the study.

Before data collection, the participants were explicitly informed about their rights in the study and privacy and confidentiality of the information they would provide. The information provided from the participants would not be shared with third parties unless the participants permitted the researcher to do it with a written consent. Furthermore, participants had the right to withdraw from the study at any time without any penalty or prejudice even though they had signed the forms. To protect participants' identities, pseudonyms are used in the excerpts in research reports and the thesis. Before asking participants to sign the consent forms, I provided them with 'Participant Information Letter' in which the details about the study and the content of consent forms were explained (Appendix 3.3). The participants were asked to read the letter carefully before completing the consent forms (Appendix 3.4). The information sheet and consent forms were prepared both in English and in Turkish. The students were explicitly asked to share the information letters with their parents/guardians as well. As multiple interview sessions were conducted with the

participants, the content of the consent forms and participants' rights were reminded before each session. Specific conditions (e.g. time, frequency and place) for observations and interviews were decided by/with participants.

The data is being kept securely on my personal computer, which is password-protected, and in my external hard drive. The hard-copy materials and printed analysis of the collected data have been kept in securely locked cabinets. The participants have been also informed that if they request to see the findings of the research, they will have access to the findings and/or parts of analysis related to the information they have provided. The data will be stored securely for a period of 10 years after the completion of the thesis and then destroyed. These principles about ethical issues have been followed while conducting the research and writing the thesis.

#### **4.10. Limitations**

Some reflections on the specific methodology adopted in this study (e.g. data collection and analysis) and overall design of this study are listed in this section. Although it is arguable whether these issues have caused considerable limitations, they have influenced this study and its outcomes.

*Classroom observations.* I could observe each classroom for two lesson hours per week during the main data collection. Therefore, the findings and discussion regarding the teachers' practices in the classroom were only limited to the lessons I had observed. Moreover, although video-recording would have provided a richer and detailed capture of these lessons, it was not possible because of some practical and ethical issues (e.g. teachers' unwillingness to be recorded and strict regulations by

MoNE). In fact, even for the audio-recording, some teachers allowed me to use a recorder as long as it was ‘not visible.’

*Interviews.* Due to some ethical and practical issues, all of the interviews with the students were conducted during the lunch breaks in the school buildings. This resulted in relatively short interview sessions. I tried to eliminate this drawback through having short chats with the participants during the other break times and conducting multiple interviews with them. Moreover, stimulated recall as a methodological option could have been considered in order to elicit more detailed information about the participants’ specific actions and decisions during the lessons. However, most of the interviews were conducted shortly after my classroom observations (e.g. on the same day or the following day) and this apparently helped the participants to talk about the lessons while their memory was still quite fresh.

*Data analysis.* I could only finish some of the interviews transcriptions and detailed analysis of these transcriptions after I had left the research site and come back to the UK. As a result, when I encountered issues where further clarification would be needed, I was not able to contact the participants in person. I tried to overcome this issue through attempts to contact them via social networking websites (e.g. Facebook) or e-mail.

## CHAPTER 5

# FINDINGS (A.1)

### 5.0. Introduction

In this chapter, I will present the specific details about Classroom A.1 in School A and findings from this unit of analysis (i.e. mini-case). After presenting the background information about the research participants and overall classroom environment, I will address the details of the data collection procedures in this unit of analysis. Then, I will present the three themes that emerged during the data analysis process. This will be followed by a summary of the findings presented in this chapter.

### 5.1. Background

Background information related to this particular unit of analysis includes the details about research participants, classroom context and data collection process. As data analysis procedures have been already explained in detail in Chapter 4, the related section in this chapter refers to some examples to illustrate the analysis process (Appendix 5.1) and involves the themes developed from Classroom A.1.

#### 5.1.1. Participants

Participants from Classroom A.1 were the language teacher, two teacher trainees and two students. Kamile, a pseudonym used for the language teacher, was in her 50s and she had nearly 30 years of teaching experience. She had been working in School A for 27 years and she was the head of the English language teachers' group in the

school (i.e. *zümre başkanı*). As I observed, she was very much respected by the school administrators, colleagues and students. Although the other language teachers were relatively reluctant to participate in this study at the beginning, Kamile helped me a lot to access classrooms and resources in the school from the very first day of my data collection.

During some of my classroom observations there were also two teacher trainees (TT1 and TT2) in the classroom. They prepared and taught some of the lessons (e.g. classroom observations #12 and #13<sup>3</sup>). Since I observed their lessons and issues about their lessons were mentioned during the interviews with students, I included these teacher trainees as research participants. Although I could not conduct an audio-recorded interview, I had brief talks with them after some of the lessons and recorded these talks on my field notes.

There were 30 students in the classroom (19 girls and 11 boys). The students were 14-15 years old and most of them had started studying English at the 4<sup>th</sup> grade (when they were 9-10 years old). There were also a few students in the classroom who had been studying English since the 1<sup>st</sup> grade. As a result of the placement test for the 9<sup>th</sup> grades conducted at the beginning of the academic year, Classroom A.1 was comprised of students with B1 proficiency level (according to CEFR). It is worth noting that Classroom A.1 had the highest proficiency level among the four classrooms in this study. This fact, as I observed, had a positive impact on students' participation and their use of English in the classroom as well as their interaction with the teacher.

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<sup>3</sup> In this chapter, the numbers with hash in parenthesis refer to relevant classroom observation notes.

I conducted interviews with two students from this classroom: Ezgi and Yusuf (pseudonyms). Both of them were 14 years old and had been studying English since the 1<sup>st</sup> grade. Ezgi had graduated from a semi-private school and Yusuf had graduated from a private school in Ankara before they started the 9<sup>th</sup> grade at School A. These two students could be easily observed from the place where I sat during my observations. Both from my observations and personal communication with them, I can state that Ezgi and Yusuf, like most of the students in this classroom, were very involved and they often participated in the lessons enthusiastically.

### 5.1.2. Classroom context



Picture 5.1 Classroom A.2

Although the picture above shows the physical context of Classroom A.2 in the same school, it can give the reader a general image of Classroom A.1 as well. These two classrooms had similar layouts and designs.

In Classroom A.1, each student had his/her individual desk; however, they placed their desks close to their neighbouring classmates' desks next to them and they created three rows of desks. Only two students preferred not to group their desks so those two students were sitting individually. There were students' lockers in the back of the classroom. The teacher's desk was placed in the front, on the window side. There was a smart-board on the front wall but it was not activated because of some technical issues. As a result, they used the green and white boards on the wall and

the projector attached to the ceiling. The teacher often used the OHP or her laptop and the projector to deliver the lessons.

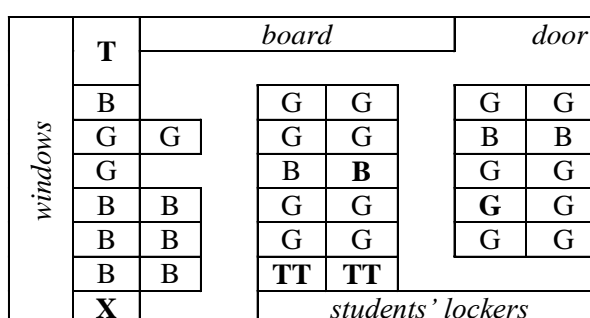


Figure 5.1. Physical layout of Classroom A.1

Before each classroom observation, I drew a rough sketch of seating arrangements on my notebook. Figure 5.1 shows the general layout of Classroom A.1; however, it should be noted that some students usually changed their places before lessons. In the figure, the letter 'B' is used to show male students and 'G' is used to show female students. 'TT' shows where the teacher trainees usually sat and 'X' shows where I often sat during the observations. The letters '**G**' and '**B**' in bold show two student interviewees selected in this classroom.

The proficiency level of this classroom was stated as B1 as a result of the placement test for 9<sup>th</sup> grades conducted at the beginning of the academic year. Since MoNE had not provided B1 level textbooks, the teacher often used different resources (supplementary textbooks, hand-outs) in the classroom. The textbook *Upstream, Pre-Intermediate, B1* with its software was used as the main supplementary materials in the classroom.

As for the overall classroom atmosphere, the teacher, Kamile, expressed that she liked Classroom A.1 because students could utilise peer teaching and help each other

in their studies (turn 02). In her words, the students with higher proficiency level could take a ‘locomotive’ role by working with the students with lower proficiency (turn 10). This metaphor indicated a collaborative atmosphere in the classroom and the nature of interaction that could happen between students.

02	Kamile:	The classroom atmosphere is nice, students are getting along well with each other, I mean there isn't any problem. // Besides, when they're studying, they usually use peer-teaching, that's very good. For example, if they have an exam, they study together before the exam, create small pairs and do peer-teaching, do revision for the exam. I really like this class in that regard.
10	Kamile:	While they're developing their friendship, they also help each other. In this classroom, students with better language skills help students with lower proficiency. They became a locomotive in this sense. The ones with higher proficiency become locomotives, helping others.
11	Erkan:	Does this have any influence on your teaching in the classroom?
12	Kamile:	Let's say, a student doesn't understand something I've explained, here s/he has a peer to consult with... about why this is like that and such. If s/he can't get a sufficient answer, then s/he asks me. So, their peers become one of the resources in the classroom. I mean they start to see each other as possible resources in the class. This makes the classroom richer.

(Kamile, 130408)

Kamile also emphasised that students were able to see each other as potential ‘resources’ in the classroom and they were able to discuss issues among themselves rather than directly asking the teacher (turn 12). This kind of environment can strengthen students’ positions in the classroom and promote their autonomy in terms of partly taking charge of their learning and seeing each other as potential resources in the language lesson.

### 5.1.3. Data collection

I conducted classroom observations in Classroom A.1 between 30.11.2012 and 04.01.2013 (first phase) and between 25.02.2013 and 08.04.2013 (second phase). In total, I conducted thirteen classroom observations, ten of which were audio-recorded.



Except for one week, I observed two sequential lessons every week (in total, 25 lessons were observed). I took my notes on a notebook in English during my observations. In addition to observations, semi-structured interviews with participants were conducted. The interviews were carried out in the school building, mostly during lunch time. All of the interviews were conducted in Turkish and they were audio-recorded with the permission of the participants. The details of interviews (e.g. numbers, duration and place) can be seen in Chapter 4.

#### **5.1.4. Data analysis and findings**

In total there were around 330 codes developed inductively. It is worth reminding the reader that the data analysis includes the *contextual coding* process. That is, emerging codes were developed and grouped around certain classroom incidents (e.g. a classroom task, a conversation between students and their teacher) as well as their relevance to one another. A specific sample from Classroom A.1 can be found in Appendix 5.1.

The three themes discussed in this chapter are: Recontextualising the non-pedagogical texts in the classroom (Section 5.2), a personal touch to classroom outputs (Section 5.3) and spontaneous remarks within the flow of the lesson (Section 5.4). Each theme involves two separate but related sets of data samples addressing relevant categories in the context of distinctive classroom incidents. Each set of samples was coded to enable easy access for future reference. As mentioned in Chapter 4, the data presentation here is comprised of extracts from the textbook, field journal and interviews in order to provide triangulation of data methods and a rich contextualisation.

## **5.2. Recontextualising non-pedagogical texts in the classroom**

As described in Section 2.3, the term ‘text’ in this study refers to any printed or recorded, written or spoken data, language samples and materials used in the classroom. In this theme, particularly, ‘text’ includes the materials (e.g. reading texts, videos and pictures) brought by the teacher or the teacher trainees (TT) into the classroom as main or supplementary inputs. These texts are described as ‘non-pedagogical’ in the theme title as they have been produced without any language teaching purposes. This labelling resembles the traditional, materials-oriented definition of ‘authenticity’ in the ELT literature (Litte, 1997); however, this theme mainly focuses on how these texts have been ‘recontextualised’ in the classroom. Here, recontextualisation refers to a part of the entextualisation process in which texts have been taken out from their primary context(s) and introduced into a new context (i.e. classroom) (see Bernstein, 1990; Blommaert, 2005). Selected samples in this theme aim to address the teacher’s and the TTs’ attempts to accommodate non-pedagogical texts and to (co)construct their validity with the students in the classroom. In other words, this accommodation refers to the process of authentication in the specific classroom context.

As mentioned previously, the teacher and the TTs were explicitly asked to describe ‘authenticity’ in our interviews. The teacher, Kamile, explained the term ‘authenticity’ as having two aspects: (1) ‘original’ materials brought into the classroom and used as a part of the lesson and (2) students’ genuine outputs in/for the language lesson (Kamile, 121220). While the latter point will be addressed in the following theme, the former constitutes the focus of this theme.

84	Kamile:	Authenticity... everything you bring to the classroom can be authentic. Original <sup>4</sup> things you bring to the classroom and materials you've found outside the classroom can be authentic. You use them as a component of the lesson and you work on them with students, make them authentic. For example you're teaching phrasal verbs and let's say you present a video about those phrasal verbs... it's authentic.
85	Erkan:	What kind of video is on your mind?
86	Kamile:	For example, let me tell you about our video presentation yesterday... there's a TV serial that students really like, we used some parts from this TV serial, but not the whole episode. Our topic was celebrations and happy days and there was a video about celebrations in different countries. Then we showed a short video from the Big Bang Theory about New Year celebrations in [the United States of] America. It was mostly about giving and receiving gifts. For example, there was also another video about Ramadan celebrations in another country... students can see people's perceptions, their behaviours, their feelings, their utterances... then we did a worksheet related to the video, did some activities like multiple-choice, gap filling ones. It was very nice, students really liked it! It was also an authentic materials.
87	Erkan:	You said everything brought into the classroom could be authentic=
88	Kamile:	=yes, of course everything can be authentic, because what are you doing with them? You take it as original and present it to the students, use it as a part of the lesson. You help students to understand it, make connection between it and the lesson. They feel that they understand it and understand why it's used in the lesson.

(Kamile, 121220)

After I stated that my research interest was mainly about what could be authentic in the classroom, Kamile claimed that 'everything' one might bring into the classroom could be authentic. Here, 'everything' apparently included 'original' materials that could be found outside the classroom. Although this clarification seemed to echo the traditional definition of authenticity in ELT, she then highlighted the process of using the materials, including making them a part of the lesson and working on them with students. In fact, she explicitly stated that this process could make these materials authentic in the classroom context (turn 84). She also gave a particular lesson as an example in which they used 'original' videos to review the topic of

<sup>4</sup> Kamile used the word 'orijinal' in Turkish, which can be directly translated into English as 'original'.

‘celebrations’. In this lesson, a short video from the *Big Bang Theory*, which was a very popular TV show among students, was shown along with another video about the Ramadan festival to help students visualise people’s behaviours and utterances in such events. After watching these videos, students were given worksheets related to what they had watched. At the end, not only were the ‘original’ videos utilised to present a topic on celebrations in different cultures, but also these videos became an integral part of the lesson through some classroom activities. According to Kamile, the students responded to this process positively (turn 86). At the end, they could make sense of these videos and establish their validity as a meaningful component of the lesson in which ‘non-pedagogical’ materials could be turned into pedagogical ones (turn 88).

Here, her mention of helping the students to understand and validate these texts as relevant parts of the lesson shows the crucial role of the teacher in the process of recontextualisation, which is often not acknowledged in the literature related to authenticity in ELT. The following two samples, labelled as Recon#1 and Recon#2, will address this issue and elaborate it through the teacher’s and TTs’ attempts to authenticate such inputs in the classroom context along with the students’ responses to these attempts.

### **5.2.1. Recon#1**

In order to present a classroom event where non-pedagogical texts were introduced as an input, the excerpts below were selected from a lesson which was delivered by the teacher trainees (TT1 and TT2). The teacher was also sitting at the back and observing the lesson. Overall, this first sample (Recon#1) is about a reading text

selected by the TTs and the teacher's intervention at the end of the lesson to review the related vocabulary items.

The lesson was planned around a reading text about *Pompeii*, an ancient Roman city which had been destroyed and buried under ash in a volcanic eruption. Pompeii, a UNESCO World Heritage Site, is also one of the popular tourist attractions in Italy. The materials including the reading text, pictures and a video about the city were selected and adapted for the lesson by the TTs. Here, the pictures and the video had been taken from the website of UNESCO<sup>5</sup>. At the beginning of the lesson, TT1 showed some pictures and encouraged students to talk about them. The pictures were of the objects found in the area during the discovery of the ancient city. Then, TT1 distributed the hand-outs with the reading text and related activities on it. She asked students to read the questions first and guess their answers. Some students got confused here and started to read the text. While some students were guessing the answers and the others were trying to read the text, TT1 asked everyone to read the text quickly and check if their answers were correct. At the end, they checked the answers one by one.

In the second part, TT2 asked the students to read the text again and answer the comprehension questions. After reading the text carefully, the students gave their answers and elaborated them by reading the related parts in the text aloud. The third part was a vocabulary activity in which students were asked to match the words with their definitions. TT2 wanted students to elicit the meanings from the text if they did not know the meanings of the words. When they were checking the answers, TT2

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<sup>5</sup> <http://whc.unesco.org/en/list/829> as retrieved on April 2014.

showed some pictures on the screen to make the meanings more clear. After this activity, which went relatively quickly, they watched a video about Pompeii and briefly talked about it. During this part, students made connections between the reading and the video by making sentences that described the scenes. It seemed that they found the video interesting. At the end of the lesson, TT2 finished the lesson by saying *'that's all for today'*. However, the teacher intervened at this point and said she wanted to review the vocabulary items again as they had still some time left.

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<b>T:</b> OK, please look at these highlighted words again... bold ones... Can you guess their meanings?	
<b>T:</b> I know that. But don't use the definition here, let's try to explain them in your own words... try to remember them.	<b>S1:</b> We have done this!
<b>T:</b> Flee?	<b>Ss:</b> OK.
<b>T:</b> Because of what?	<b>Ss:</b> escape
<b>T:</b> Yes, or because of a risky situation. For example people from Syria...	<b>S1:</b> disasters?
<b>T:</b> Yes. They flee Syria because of war... They become refugees. What about abandon?	<b>Ss:</b> Yes. <b>S1:</b> People flee from Syria because of war.
<b>T:</b> Say goodbye to... leave something behind, yes... for example, in our backyard... think about our school... there is a small hut in our backyard.	<b>S2:</b> leave behind
<b>T:</b> hut... cottage.	<b>S3:</b> small what?
<b>T:</b> Nobody is living in it. Because it is...	<b>Ss:</b> [?]
	<b>S2:</b> abandoned <b>S4:</b> Is there a cottage there? <b>S5:</b> I will check it next week [TR] <b>S4:</b> Where is that? <b>S5:</b> Is it for the security?

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(Classroom observation, A.1#12)

When the teacher asked students to look at the highlighted words in the text again, one of the students (S1) reminded the teacher that they had already done that. As a

response to this brief resistance, the teacher acknowledged it and explained that she was asking for a different task this time. S1's brief reminder indicated that students actively followed the lesson and possibly found repeating the same activity unnecessary. The teacher started a new task with the same vocabulary items and she wanted the students to describe the target words in their own words. She also provided some samples directly related to the contexts familiar to students. In other words, the students practised the vocabulary items through a matching activity in the context of the reading text (Pompeii) with the TTs and they had an opportunity to make connections between these words and their daily lives during the activity with the teacher. For example, they explained the word 'to flee' through the Syrian civil war and the word 'to abandon/be abandoned' through a small hut in the schoolyard. Both references were initiated by the teacher and students contributed them using the target words in these contexts. In fact, the sample about the abandoned hut especially attracted some students' interest and they had a very short talk about it in the lesson. Although the sample was introduced by the teacher, the students had the floor and developed this topic around 'the hut in the backyard' rather than the target word 'to abandon/be abandoned'. For instance, S5 did not leave the topic within the walls of the classroom but attempted to go beyond it by saying that he would check the hut later. At the end of the lesson, the teacher gave students their homework and asked them to write a very short summary about Pompeii using the highlighted words in particular.

Relying on my previous observations and our chats with the teacher, I can claim that her intervention at the end of the lesson was not very surprising. She often made connections between the subject, target language and students' lives in her lessons

and usually encouraged students to explain things in their own words and/or produce personal outputs (see Sections 5.3 and 5.4). Indeed, her attempts to encourage students to produce personal outputs could often lead into genuine outcomes in the classroom, which could be seen as a part of the process of authentication. She acknowledged this in our talk after this particular lesson as well and referred to possible consequences of being novice or experienced as a teacher.

School A 01.04.2013	After the lesson, I talked with Kamile about the teacher trainees' lesson (on Pompeii). First, she mentioned about the technical issues they faced in the lesson (they couldn't watch the video about Pompeii on the screen at the beginning of the lesson) and she stated that teachers should be prepared for such issues and consider different options while planning the lessons. Then she said '[they] <i>finished the lesson a bit early and, as you saw, I asked students to practise those highlighted words in the text again. Because I noticed that vocabulary part was a bit fast and some students didn't understand the meanings. If you noticed, I wanted students to explain those words in English. This is better than simply matching the words and their meanings. Then you can see if the students really understood the words. But it's totally normal. They are still trainees and this is how they'll develop themselves. They'll prepare the next lesson better. We all did the same.</i> ' At the end, she shared some of her teaching experiences at the beginning of her career and compared them with her later experiences.
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(Field notes)

Kamile stated that she intervened in the lesson at the end because she thought she could use the remaining time more efficiently by reviewing the vocabulary activity, which was, according to her, passed over a bit quickly by the TTs. She also wanted to be sure that students understood the target words so she asked them to 'explain' the words in English rather than to simply match them with their meanings again. Apparently, she considered this intervention as a 'pedagogical reflex' through which experienced teachers could evaluate students' understanding and learning in the classroom. Here, it can be claimed that both the text (e.g. *flee* – '*For example people from Syria...*' ) and task (e.g. '*explain the words in your own words*') elements were



revised by the teacher to foster the process of authentication by the students. Besides, this intervention received a positive response by most students despite their initial opposition about the repetition of the activity.

During the data collection process in Classroom A.1, I also observed that the TTs tended to focus on ‘delivering’ the activity and carrying on the lesson as it had been planned while the teacher usually aimed to put the students at the centre and make sure they could involve in the activity effectively. In the classroom incident described above, for example, the TTs attempted to recontextualise non-pedagogical inputs by designing a series of pedagogical activities around them. However, they primarily aimed at carrying out the lesson plan, and the procedural sequences and outputs in which students provided the ‘expected’ answers were apparently satisfactory for them. The teacher’s intervention at the end, on the other hand, may not be a complete contradiction to the TTs’ practice, but a supportive act to foster students’ involvement and personalisation of the input.

Ezgi, one of the students, shared her thoughts about the lesson and the reading text in particular during our interview. In general, she pointed out that she found the text on Pompeii very interesting as it covered some historical and cultural topics (turn 02).

01	Erkan:	How was the lesson this week?
02	Ezgi:	It was good. We were mainly busy with a piece of paper that the teacher trainees brought and we talked about it whole lesson. It was good... the story was very interesting and it's always nice to learn such stories. About things like history and culture.
03	Erkan:	And what about the topic? It was about Pompeii.
04	Ezgi:	Yes. The topic was also good, I found it interesting. I didn't understand at the beginning. I thought the eruption was in 1748 but it happened before that. They discovered it in 1748! It was fun, I do like this kind of reading texts, I like story-like texts.

25	Erkan:	At the end of the lesson, the teacher reviewed the highlighted words in the text.
26	Ezgi:	Yes, otherwise it would be free time. We finished the lesson early.
27	Erkan:	I see. So when it was finished early, the teacher wanted to review those words and you did a kind of different activity. She asked you to explain the words in your own words or complete her sentences.
28	Ezgi:	It was nice to practise those words again. She even gave familiar examples and explained them clearly. They were even talking about the hut in the yard; someone said he would check it after the lesson. It was funny. I think it helped us understand their meanings better. Plus it's helpful to practise again after studying something in the lesson.

(Ezgi, 130401)

Ezgi pointed out that what made the selected text interesting was mainly its topic and its story-like design (turns 02 and 04). When she was describing the lesson, Ezgi focused on the ‘reading text’ and why she found it interesting but she did not make any explicit comments on the classroom task. Interestingly, she only used the phrase ‘*a piece of paper*’ at the beginning, referring to the activities prepared by the TTs. When I reminded her about the teacher’s intervention at the end of the lesson, Ezgi first mentioned it as an effective use of time (turn 26). Then, she stated that it was useful to revise the vocabulary items, especially through familiar examples and explanations. She also mentioned her classmates’ brief talk about the hut in the backyard and said that it helped students to understand the meanings of the target words clearly. To her, interesting and familiar exemplification made those vocabulary items clearer and easier to remember (turn 28).

Overall, this first sample illustrated a classroom incident in which the TTs brought ‘traditionally authentic’ texts to the classroom and focused on the pedagogical use of these texts. Although it may be relatively artificial to separate ‘text’ and ‘task’ components in this lesson, it can be claimed that while the text was easily authenticated and seen as a valid part of the lesson, the tasks could be authenticated

by the students more successfully after the teacher's intervention, which aimed at students' increased involvement.

In Classroom A.1, the TTs often designed their lessons using inputs different to the textbook. In this sample (Recon#1), they used a reading text, pictures and a video (as non-pedagogical texts) to introduce the topic 'Pompeii' and recontextualised them in order to practise particular language items and skills in the lesson. The following sample is also a lesson delivered by the TTs in which 'non-pedagogical' texts were again used as inputs.

### **5.2.2. Recon#2**

While the previous sample presents accommodating non-pedagogical texts through a vocabulary activity, this second sample (Recon#2) covers a grammar review through some movie and TV show scenes displayed by the same TTs in the lesson. Although it is arguable due to their very nature (e.g. written scripts, enacted by actors/actress), TV series are usually regarded as 'authentic' materials that provide natural spoken input and vocabulary use (Al-Surmi, 2012; Sherman, 2003). The main aim of the lesson was to review the if-clauses (type-2 and type-3 conditionals).

It is worth noting that the extracts below were taken from a lesson by the TTs, preceded by a lesson by the teacher doing language practice on the type-2 conditional clauses. Some extracts from the teacher's lesson will be presented in Section 5.3 in this chapter. In the TTs' lesson, TT1 first asked students to tell what they knew about the conditional sentences and she explained the conditionals briefly (e.g. *'type-2 is about imaginary situations in present, type-3 is the same but in the past... imaginary, less possible or unreal situations in present and in past'*). At one

point, her brief explanation became confusing so she said ‘*We have two videos for you. Everything will be clear when you watch them*’ and she played the first video.

TT1 asked students to pay attention to which conditional was used in the video while they were watching it. The video was a scene from a movie called ‘*The Curious Case of Benjamin Button*’ (2008) in which the voice-over made sentences mostly in the type-3 conditional (unreal past). The video was shown twice and after it, TT1 wanted students to explain why type-3 conditional was used in the given scene.

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**Movie Quote:** ... *and if only one thing had happened differently: if that shoelace hadn't broken; or that delivery truck had moved moments earlier....* [continues]

**TT:** Now, which type is used here?

**Ss:** Type 3!

**TT:** Type 3, yes. Why does he use type-3 here, any ideas?

**S1:** It happened in the past.

**TT:** Yes. It happened in the past. What else?

**S2:** He's talking about past and his predictions?

**TT:** Predictions? OK, or wishes.

**S2:** He said if only one thing had happened differently, the taxi wouldn't have crushed Daisy?

**TT:** Yes, you're right.

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(Classroom observation, A.1#11)

After showing the movie scene, TT1 adopted a more deductive approach and focused on the grammar point rather than eliciting certain structures and functions by encouraging students to talk about what they watched. As mentioned before, this might be because of TTs' tendencies to pay more effort to carry on a lesson plan through the tasks they had planned rather than to stimulate students' authentication of these tasks. After TT1, TT2 had the floor and introduced the next video and which types of conditional clauses were used in it.

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**TT:** I know you like Big Bang Theory very much. As you know, type-2 is present unreal. We'll see some parts from Big Bang, it has subtitles, please read them carefully.

**TT:** As you see, there are conditional type-2 sentences. It's an unlikely possibility... it can be present but unreal...

[students watched the scenes for two times]

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(Classroom observation, A.1#11)

Unlike the scene from the previous movie, this video included several scenes from different episodes of the TV serial called the *Big Bang Theory*. All of the scenes that had been put together included the type-2 conditional clauses<sup>6</sup> and those clauses were given in the subtitles. The students watched the video without talking about what was happening in the scenes as the main focus was on the grammar items<sup>7</sup>. The video was also shown twice and students seemed to enjoy watching it. After the video, TT2 briefly explained the type-2 conditional. This time, the students were not invited to explain why this type was particularly used in the selected scenes; however, the activity was still form-focused and delivered in a deductive way.

After watching these videos, the TTs presented a listening activity with a song called 'Masterpiece' by Madonna (released in 2012). Although this song could be also labelled as non-pedagogical text, details about this listening activity were omitted here due to the limited space in this sample. At the end of the lesson, the TTs gave a worksheet about the conditionals as homework.

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<sup>6</sup> <http://youtu.be/VJF9Gb3dGbc> as retrieved on April 2014.

<sup>7</sup> As I found out later, the students had already watched an episode of the *Big Bang Theory* in another lesson delivered by the TTs in the first term and talked about the serial and the characters in detail. So it could be understandable that TT2 did not want to spend much time on talking about the TV show again.

In the interview, Ezgi described this lesson as ‘enjoyable’ mainly because of the selected materials. The TV show selected for this lesson was apparently found entertaining by the students both inside and outside the classroom (turn 38).

37	Erkan:	// You also watched Benjamin Button and the Big Bang Theory... how was it?
38	Ezgi:	It was good. We enjoyed it. I had already watched Benjamin Button... and everyone likes the Big Bang Theory, it's so funny. It's always fun, even in the lesson.
39	Erkan:	Even? Is there a difference between watching them in the classroom and outside the classroom?
40	Ezgi:	[if I watched it outside the classroom] I wouldn't be paying attention whether any if-clauses are used in it or not. But this one was good, we noticed the if-clauses.
41	Erkan:	Yes, they particularly chose the scenes in which the if-clauses were used.
42	Ezgi:	And it had subtitles; I mean we had a chance to pick sentences with if-clauses there, it was good. It was useful for us because you don't always pay attention to how if-clauses are used in sentences or to how sentences are structured at all... you only care about what it's about.
43	Erkan:	I see.
44	Ezgi:	I mean when you watch a movie at home with or without subtitles, you only pay attention to what it tells, to its topic in general... For example, in the Big Bang Theory there may be a lot of jokes, witty jokes... you don't put effort to catch some grammar things.

(Ezgi, 130401)

Here, Ezgi pointed out that she would have tried to understand the topic overall or specific jokes used by the characters rather than paying close attention to grammar items used in the scenes if she had watched the video outside the classroom (as a leisure activity in daily life) (turns 40 and 44). However, when this popular TV show was used in the classroom to review a particular grammar item and when this purpose was made explicit both by TT2 and the subtitles, students paid more attention to the grammar items (turn 42). In other words, in the process of recontextualisation of these videos, watching for ‘pedagogical purposes’ was added on watching for ‘pleasure’ in this lesson, and students became aware of these purposes through explicit instructions. Indeed, they even validated these materials as relevant parts of the lesson.

58	Ezgi:	We could've spent more time on some sentences. I mean we couldn't have talked about and explained every sentence with if-clause in the movie but we could have selected one or two different sentences and explained them... just a couple of examples. In this way, it would've been clearer to everyone, I guess.
63	Erkan:	What about talking about the movie? Because it seems you mainly focused on the sentences, on the if-clauses... Would you prefer talking about the movie itself as well?
64	Ezgi:	To see if it was understood well? I didn't know the overall topic first... but I think we understood the story.
65	Erkan:	I see.
66	Ezgi:	If we had talked about the movie itself, it wouldn't have made a huge difference for me but if there were people who didn't understand, it would be better for them.
67	Erkan:	I guess most people understood it.
68	Ezgi:	Yes! In fact, it wasn't very necessary to talk about the scenes in detail. Because it was obvious and it was fun to watch it like that, I mean more fun when we watch it like this rather than explaining every details and such.

(Ezgi, 130401)

As for talking about the scenes in general rather than merely focusing on the conditionals, Ezgi claimed that although they could not have talked about every sentence with the if-clause, they could have explain some of the sentences in detail within the specific contexts in the scenes. To her, this would have made all students understand the scenes and the target structure better (turns 58 and 66). However, she also claimed that it was not expected to explain every scene in detail in the classroom as this might have been considered relatively artificial and less entertaining to students (turn 68). In other words, students might prefer utilising such materials in the classroom as texts with their non-pedagogical purposes rather than with 'contrived' purposes.

51	Yusuf:	// If there hadn't had any subtitles, then we might have missed the if-clauses. We saw those sentences in subtitles and heard it in daily conversations in the scenes. We also made connections with our previous knowledge of if-clauses. It was useful. With subtitles we understood it better, more easily. And it was better that there weren't any subtitles in other scenes... otherwise we would have read the subtitles all the time and might have missed the overall fun.
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(Yusuf, 130325)

Yusuf also made a similar comment about the subtitles shown on the scenes with the conditional phrases only. He claimed that these subtitles were useful and they made the target structure more noticeable, giving students a chance to see how this structure could be used in the ‘daily conversations’ in the scenes (turn 51). Here, even though the main focus was on the grammar items, students seemed to pay attention to overall content and presentation of these texts. Therefore, it is possible to claim that the TTs could have facilitated the process of authentication of the texts in the classroom context by highlighting certain communicative aspects and elements of these texts. Furthermore, commenting on watching a video as a part of the lesson in general, Yusuf referred to their teacher’s teaching and claimed that Kamile, the teacher, usually integrated non-pedagogical videos into the lesson.

73	Erkan:	// and what do you think watching movie scenes in the classroom? Do you find it useful?
74	Yusuf:	Now, when our teacher shows a movie, she always has a speaking activity or writing activity at the end, like she asks us to share what we understand or to write a summary and such. I mean, watching a movie in the English lesson is actually for entertainment, I mean an extracurricular activity but she can make it a part of the lesson, so it becomes a part of teaching.

(Yusuf, 130408)

The extract above demonstrated the potential and the role of the teacher in the process of authentication as well as the students’ ability to recognise and validate particular type of inputs in the classroom. For example, Yusuf stated that the teacher could often introduce movies or other videos that had been originally produced with non-pedagogical purposes on some pedagogical grounds in the classroom context, thus facilitating their validation in the language lesson (turn 74).

When I asked Yusuf to compare watching textbook videos (i.e. videos produced with pedagogical purposes) with watching videos such as movies/TV shows in the



classroom (i.e. videos produced without pedagogical purposes), he first mentioned the ‘labels’ the textbook videos carried, thus their face validity.

38	Erkan:	Do you find any differences between them? Watching the textbook videos or the Big Bang scenes in the lesson?
39	Yusuf:	Yes. First they have this label as ‘prepared for the textbook’. Otherwise it wouldn’t make a big difference. This makes you more aware of that it has been prepared for teaching something. // Plus, you know that specific sentences are mainly used in those videos. It naturally include those sentences to teach the subject, I mean even if there are better expressions in the language, they would choose those sentences rather than other expressions to teach the topic. It isn’t always nice. But the Big Bang Theory, let’s say, is totally unrelated. Do you think they deliberately put some if-clauses in the script so that students can study it? Of course not. It happens during an ongoing conversation. It seems more natural.

(Yusuf, 130325)

As I could not observe any lessons in which they used textbook videos, I mainly relied on the students’ comments and claims in the interviews. According to Yusuf, textbook videos had mainly pedagogical purposes and labelling them explicitly could make students more aware of the specific purposes and functions of these videos, and easily differentiate them from the videos they could see outside the classroom. Apparently, the producers could prefer using specific structures in order to ‘teach’ specific items or topics, which might result in a text in which more natural expressions could be eliminated. In this sense, Yusuf claimed that videos such as scenes from the *Big Bang Theory* could provide more natural input, thus reflecting everyday language use better (turn 39).

Likewise, Ezgi pointed out similar issues and stated that while TV shows could present how language was used in daily life and sound ‘more realistic’, textbook videos might emphasis their pedagogical purposes and make this so clear that it might sound ‘artificial’. Moreover, she mentioned that movies/TV series usually

included language speakers with different accents, which could help students to get familiar with different uses and varieties of the language. As a result, she found them more useful and realistic as a language input. However, she also emphasised that she did not have any problems with textbook videos even though they clearly looked contrived (Ezgi, 121214; 130401). Ezgi also claimed that watching the scenes from the *Big Bang Theory* was both fun and useful. Apparently, they drew students' attention better than a textbook video could do (turn 105).

104	Erkan:	// and what about watching one of the textbook videos in that lesson instead of the Big Bang. Would it make any difference? I mean the video of the textbook and=
105	Ezgi:	=yes, of course the Big Bang makes it more fun. Because if it had been a video from Upstream then we wouldn't had taken it seriously at all, maybe half of the class wouldn't have watched or listened to it. But when it's the Big Bang, it has a different effect, it is entertaining and engaging. That's why I think watching it is more fun, more useful.

(Ezgi, 130401)

Overall, it can be claimed that the non-pedagogical texts (i.e. videos) presented in this sample were considered as appealing and useful components of the lesson by the students. In other words, they were validated by both the students and the TTs as relevant inputs even though they had not primarily had language teaching purposes. At the end of the lesson, the teacher also described this lesson as a '*nice one*' in which '*student watched the videos, they enjoyed and had a chance to practise the if-clauses*' (Field notes, A.1, 120325).

### 5.2.3. Towards 'authentication'

This theme has addressed recontextualisation of non-pedagogical texts in the classroom through two specific samples (Recon#1 and Recon#2). These texts have been traditionally regarded as 'authentic texts' (or 'genuine' ones in Widdowson's words) in the ELT literature. However, the focus of this theme is not on what made

these texts ‘traditionally authentic’ or genuine but on how these texts were accommodated in the classroom and received by the participants.

In Recon#1 a reading text from an online resource was introduced by the TTs as to practise vocabulary items. The students responded to the text positively especially because they found the topic interesting. However, the teacher intervened at the end of the lesson and reviewed the vocabulary part because she did not find it satisfactory in terms of how it had been carried out earlier. She encouraged students to review the vocabulary items and provide personal samples or explanations. Although she was the one who elaborated most of the sample sentences, the teacher attempted to elicit personal outcomes from the students related to their daily life, which led to a relatively more genuine engagement. At the end, this sample showed that authentication of non-pedagogical texts in the classroom could be achieved through making these texts both pedagogically and personally meaningful and relevant in the lesson.

In Recon#2, non-pedagogical texts brought by the TTs (i.e. videos from a movie and a TV serial) were used as well. Although the lesson seemed very grammar-focused in a deductive way, the texts received positive responses and authenticated by the students as a valid part of the lesson. In this sample, some data extracts were also presented to discuss students’ comparison of textbook videos with other types of videos (e.g. movie scenes, TV shows).

All in all, the two samples in this theme offer a connection between recontextualisation and authentication processes in the language classroom. Any

texts including traditionally authentic ones (i.e. non-pedagogical texts) need to be 'authenticated' by the teacher and students in the classroom context. Here, the teacher's plans and acts can be seen as one of the leading elements in this process along with students' responses, especially in the classrooms where the teacher selects and presents the classroom texts. In terms of lesson planning and practices, the findings revealed that there can be differences between the teacher and the TTs. This can indicate their roles and potentials in the process of authentication. For example, the TTs often used non-pedagogical texts in their lessons and the interview data showed that this could make the lessons more interesting and useful, but not essentially better than the teacher's lessons in which pedagogical texts were mainly used (Ezgi, 130401; Yusuf, 1301408). This perception may be based on the fact that (1) the TTs often planned their lessons to practise a topic that had already been introduced by the teacher so their role was seen as reviewing some language items or topics, and (2) the TTs tended to focus on carrying the lesson plan while the teacher mainly aimed at encouraging students to engage in the texts by making them more personal and relevant. The issue of personalisation will be addressed and illustrated in the following theme.

### **5.3. Adding a personal touch to task outputs**

During the data analysis process, personalisation became a common category observed in several classroom incidents. In this particular theme, personalisation involves students' engagement with and validation of the given input or the learning process and producing personal and genuine outputs. Therefore, it indicates a close connection with the process of authentication. In the classroom A.1, the students were usually asked to revise the input provided and to add their genuine contribution ('a personal touch') in order to produce their individual and personalised outputs. In

fact, as mentioned before, the teacher, Kamile, referred to personalisation and originality in the first interview while she was describing what ‘authenticity’ could mean in the classroom. She also elaborated this view by stating that students could get involved more enthusiastically when they felt the ownership in their outputs. This can be also regarded as one of the elements that foster an authentic experience in the language classroom.

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106	Kamile: When you give students the ‘producing’ part, they like it, make an effort and do it enthusiastically. Then it becomes their own work, and they won’t forget it.
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(Kamile, 121220)

In order to illustrate and elaborate this theme, two specific classroom incidents will be presented below. These two samples are labelled as Person#1 and Person#2. It is worth noting that like in the inputs in the previous theme, the input in the first sample here includes ‘traditionally’ authentic texts (i.e. non-pedagogical texts). The second sample, however, includes a reading text in the course book, thus it introduces how a textbook input could be authenticated by the teacher and students through personalisation.

### **5.3.1. Person#1**

This first sample (Person#1) includes the excerpts from a lesson in which I presented a classroom task on short stories in English. It is worth noting that my role in this particular lesson involved not only being a teacher who planned and presented the classroom task but also being a researcher who observed and interpreted the process. A detailed account of my reflection on this role in the research site and the procedures I followed to record my lessons can be found in Chapter 4.

The teacher, Kamile, had asked me to prepare a lesson plan one week before this lesson and she let me select the materials and classroom tasks as I wanted. In that sense, I was not assigned a set lesson plan to follow but given autonomy to design my own lesson. I selected seven very short stories and prepared the lesson around these stories.

The last man on Earth sat alone in a room. There was a knock on the door. (Knock – Fredric Brown)
The last man on Earth sat alone in a room. There was a lock on the door. (A horror story shorter by one letter than the shortest story ever told – Ron Smith)
For sale: baby shoes, never worn. (Ernest Hemingway)
The doctor’s wife ate two apples a day, just to be safe. But her husband kept coming home.
King Midas often wondered what would happen if he touched himself...
“Can you contact the dead?” I pull a photo out of my back pocket. She stares then hands it back. “He ain’t dead, honeypie” (The Fortune Teller – Lis Anna)
“It’s very hard to live in a studio apartment in San Jose with a man who’s learning to play the violin.” That’s what she told the police when she handed them the empty revolver. (The Scarlatti Tilt – Richard Brautigan)

Table 5.1. Seven ‘very short stories’ used in the lesson

Although my initial plan was to select a four-page short story, I decided to select several ‘very short stories’ considering the time limit (one lesson hour) and input variety. The length of these very short stories (or flash fiction, micro fiction, micro-story as they are called in literature) was between six and thirty-seven words. I selected these seven stories because I found them interesting and relatively easy for me and possibly for students to read, understand and elaborate. Moreover, I thought that they could be ideal as a springboard for promoting students’ creativity and productivity. The lesson did not involve any explicit or predetermined goals in terms

of grammar or vocabulary teaching. The main goal was to introduce the ‘very short story’ genre to the students and to promote their engagement and creativity through group work.

At the beginning of the lesson, I wanted students to talk about different types of literature works (e.g. poem, drama) and short stories as well as story authors they were familiar with. Then I divided students into groups of four/five and asked each group to choose a story from the list to study in the following steps. I showed the stories on the screen with relevant pictures and groups chose their stories. At the end, each group had a different story.

In the first part, students briefly discussed their stories in their groups. Then they shared their thoughts with other groups in English. During this part, they seemed very engaged and had an opportunity to make comments about each other’s stories. The aim of this part was to make sure that students got an idea about the stories in the other groups and to elicit and value students’ interpretations of the stories as well as to promote their ‘creativity and originality’ (see MacDonald & Spiro, 2008).

In the extract below, S1 from Group 6 shared their story and how they interpreted it. S2 and S3 from another group made humorous comments about this interpretation. As there was no right or wrong answer, the dialogue developed in an open-ended way.

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**E:** Just one or two sentences? (to Group 6)

**S1:** Maybe the man... she’s looking for her husband. And she couldn’t find him anywhere. He might be cheating on her.

**E:** Cheating on her? Interesting.

**S1:** Yes. She tries to find him and goes

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to a fortune teller to find him.  
**S2:** Maybe the fortune teller was the...  
he's cheating on with the fortune  
teller.  
**S1:** Maybe.  
**S3:** It sounds like a soap opera [TR]

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(Classroom observation, A.1#4)

In the second part, students were given three options based on the stories and asked to choose one of them: using the story they had chosen, students could (1) expand that story or write their own story in a paragraph or two; (2) write a dialogue about the story to act out and (3) draw a cartoon about it with speech bubbles. Group members discussed these options and chose one of them to work on. One group decided to prepare a dialogue and act out in front of the class, one group decided to draw a cartoon and five groups decided to write a short story based on their initial story. While groups were working on the task, I walked around and answered their questions, most of which were about word choices or sentence structures. I also asked students to be creative in their outputs. While working in groups, students mostly used Turkish but they presented their outcomes in English.

When the groups finished their outputs, they shared them with the other groups. If they wrote a short story based on their story, one of the group members read it aloud; if they prepared a dialogue they acted out the dialogue with all group members; if they drew a cartoon, they screened it on the board and explained what was happening there. One of the stories and the act-out script prepared by the students can be seen below.



It was a rainy and cold day in London, a woman who had red hair and gorgeous green eyes was crying in a black taxi. Because her baby was born dead in the taxi. She went back home and came into the baby's room. She held the little shoes. She decided to sell them to forget the pain. Next day she sold them to a young woman who is pregnant. One month later the young woman's baby was born dead too. The shoes were cursed.

Figure 5.2. Students' output – story

The man: Honey, I'm going out. And remember <sup>always</sup> "I Love You"

The woman: Why did you say that? I love you too.

The man: I just wanted to...

2 days later

The woman: Mom, I'm so worried about my husband. He left the house ~~and~~ I found a note in front of the door and it was from him.

Mom: What was it saying?

<sup>It was saying:</sup>  
The woman: Honey, I know it's too much to ask but I want you to not call me and wait for me for 1 year. 1 year later you must go this fortune teller I wrote as a PS. " and there's an address on it. What should I do?

Mom: Wait baby, I'm always here for you.

3 months later

Someone knocked the door. The woman opened it.

Figure 5.3. Students' output – act-out

The first figure above (Figure 5.2) was a short story written by group-3 based on their 'very short story' by Ernest Hemingway. Interestingly, the students chose London as the context of the story and elaborated the original story by adding details to the story line. At the end, they wrote '*the shoes were cursed*' and finished the story in a genuine and somewhat humorous way. The second figure (Figure 5.3) shows the first part of a script that group-6 acted out in the classroom. Although the original story by Lisa Ann, a filmmaker and author, included two main characters,

the students' story had five characters (there were five group members and each of them had a part in the act-out). In fact, using the original story outline, they created considerably different story and divided the story timeline into four phrases (e.g. 2 days later, 3 months later etc.). Except for one student, all group members acted out their parts without reading the script. As I observed, their acting was found to be very interesting and enjoyable by their classmates and the teacher, who was watching them as well. In the break time, I had a short conversation with the teacher about the lesson and students' outputs.

School A 21.12.2012	When I asked the teacher about her overall thoughts on the lesson, she stated that she liked the lesson and the stories selected for the classroom task. Moreover, she emphasised that <i>'it was nice to give students different options to create their own stories in their own ways. They made a dialogue or a cartoon. And they did very nice things. They enjoyed it and seemed very involved.'</i> She also asked for the copies of the lesson plan and the stories so that she could do a similar activity in another classroom.
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(Field notes)

Kamile explicitly appreciated students' outputs and that students were given different options to produce their own stories in the way they preferred. She also acknowledged that when they were given an opportunity to make decisions during the process of creating outputs, students could get more involved and interested in the classroom task. As Ezgi was absent in this particular lesson, I was able to conduct an interview only with Yusuf about this lesson. Yusuf stated that the lesson was useful for fostering students' creativity and improving their target language use in the classroom (turn 06).

05	Erkan:	What do you think about that lesson? How was it?
06	Yusuf:	It was good, it was different. We continued a story or built a new one on that story or drew a cartoon. I think it was a good activity... good for increasing creativity... both increasing creativity and improving use of English in the classroom.
07	Erkan:	What about the stories? Each group had a different story

		rather than working on the same one.
08	Yusuf:	I think it was better to have different stories in each group... better than having the same thing. For example, if it had been the same story, nobody would have listened to each other. But here, you had different stories, you became curious about them, about who wrote what. In the other, they would be all similar, the other group would have written a similar story. But when we had different stories, there were differences, different outcomes... this made a need for listening to each story.
16	Yusuf:	And it was better when we chose our own stories. // You become more enthusiastic... I mean the stories were very different, for example... you say 'this topic is good' and you choose it. You choose the topic you like... but when there aren't any options, when there is only one available option and if you don't like it... there is nothing to do. You have to do it! It would be less useful than the other. It's always useful... good to have multiple options....
17	Erkan:	I see... and what do you think about... everyone created something different at the end. One group made a dialogue, one=
18	Yusuf:	=we continued the original story. // I can say that... when we have a real story, and let's say we continue that story... that means we actually expand that story by continuing it. We transform it to a normal story... in our words... then it isn't just continuing a story, but creating a new story, your story. At the end, everyone can write their own story, build their own story.

(Yusuf, 130104)

According to Yusuf, working with different stories rather than one same story made students more curious about each other's outcomes as the outcomes would be based of different inputs (turn 08). Moreover, he pointed out that choosing the stories they liked made the groups engaged in the activity more enthusiastically. He claimed that it would have been less useful if only one story had been provided (turn 16). While we were talking about students' outputs, Yusuf used the word 'real' for the given stories (i.e. input) referring to that the stories were non-pedagogical texts and he stated that the task allowed them to continue 'the original story' thus to expand it in their words. In fact, he stated that continuing the given story in their own ways let them create their own story (turn 18). In this sense, successful links between different constituents of the classroom and different dimensions of authenticity could be achieved in this lesson.

Overall, Yusuf described the lesson as relatively unusual as it did not follow the usual route such as doing a sequence of textbook activities. In fact, according to him lessons could be more interesting and more productive when the teacher included some unexpected contents in the lesson plan. Apparently, such contents could be preferable to doing similar and expected things in every lesson (turns 26 and 28).

26	Yusuf:	And it was a bit unexpected. I mentioned it before. Rather than typical, I mean using the textbook only... I mean it's better not to know what we'll do in the lesson. For example, sometimes you know what you'll do in the next lesson, you just continue the textbook. But I think especially in the English lesson you shouldn't know what you're going to do in the lesson. The teacher should come with a surprise, let's say something like that short story activity... if we don't know what we're going to do in some lessons, then it can be better and more productive.
27	Erkan:	More productive?
28	Yusuf:	Yes... and more interesting... when we study only the textbook, it can be boring after some point... and you know what's next... following the book.
36	Yusuf:	It was good that we did [that] in the class. If it was something that we were supposed to do at home... I mean then you can get help from somewhere, you can use translations or other things... // but here, if we can't say it in English, or translate from Turkish, then we can talk with our friends and think about what its alternative could be... I mean thinking about how we can explain it in other ways, in ways that we're already familiar... then it becomes more useful, more productive.

(Yusuf, 130104)

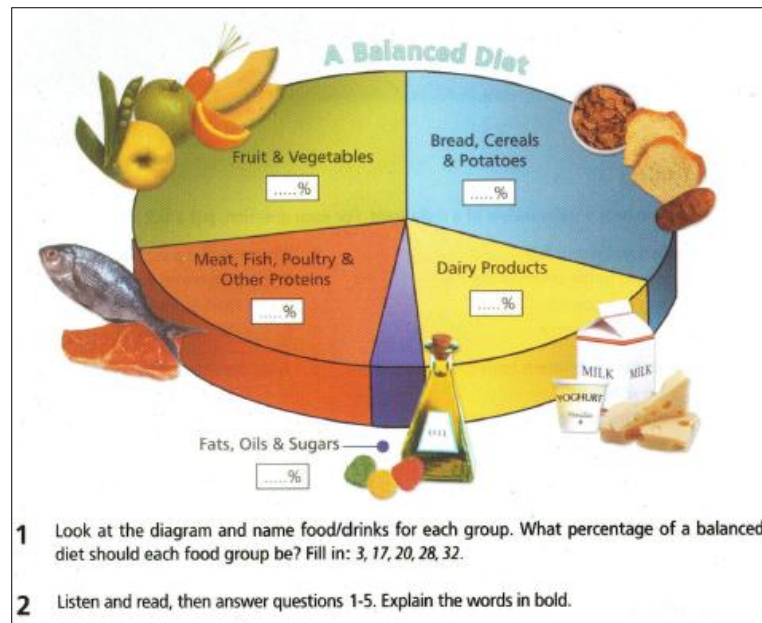
Finally, Yusuf explained that when students were asked to work with their classmates in the classroom (e.g. a classroom task) rather than to work individually at home (e.g. homework), it would become more useful and productive because students would need to use available resources in the context such as their classmates. Here, students could approach each other as potential resources to find out the appropriate target language expressions or structures, (turn 36). This kind of group work and interaction could also promote autonomy and the process of authentication in the classroom, particularly when analysed from a social-constructivist perspective.

All in all, the extracts above aimed to describe three established stages of the classroom task as (1) presenting inputs – in this case, using non-pedagogical texts, (2) students' engagement in the given task and (3) students' creative and sometimes humorous outputs at the end. In addition, the interview extracts aimed to show the teacher's and one of the students' thoughts and opinions about this process. I believe that Yusuf's quotations help to reveal the process of validation, thus authentication, by him, of this particular sequence of the classroom events.

In Classroom A.1, the students were familiar with similar activities in which they were expected to produce new things using the given input as the teacher often asked them to re-write or summarise a text and include their own opinions and sentences. For example, in the following sample students were asked to write a summary that included their personal samples and opinions.

### **5.3.2. Person#2**

Unlike the first sample described above, this second sample (Person#2) involves a contrived text as an input specifically written with pedagogical purposes and it was delivered by the teacher. In the lesson, students studied a reading text from their textbook (*Upstream, B1*, Express Publishing). It was about 'a balanced diet' and it introduced different food groups (e.g. fruit & vegetables, dairy products) and what they could mainly provide (e.g. carbohydrates, vitamins). The text was presented at the end of a self-assessment module in the textbook to review language skills and topics covered in the previous modules.



*Upstream, Pre-Intermediate B1, Express Publishing, p.100*

First, the teacher asked students to look at the diagram above the reading text and guess the percentages of each food group for a balanced diet. Then students read the text and checked their guesses. The text explained why a balanced diet was necessary and included a table about what each food group mainly provided as well as specific suggestions and estimated number of daily servings. There were also five questions related to the text (e.g. *Which group is the main source of calcium?*), and students were asked to read the text and answer these questions. In the same exercise (Exercise 2), the students were also asked to explain the words written in bold in the text (e.g. chemical reactions, fatty acids). The teacher usually encouraged different students to answer the questions but mainly the same students participated in this part. While explaining the words in bold, the teacher provided several samples from her daily diet. That she exemplified the information in the text through personal samples and anecdotes from everyday life could be seen as her attempt of authentication.

The third exercise was a ‘project’ activity in which students were asked to assess their own diet by writing down what they normally ate in a day. However, the teacher revised this part and wanted students to read the text again then to close their textbooks and write their own summary on ‘a balanced diet’.

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**T:** Now I want you to read the text once more... Pay attention to the details. Then you will write about why we should have balanced diet... how much we should take some nutrients... you can use the graph here... You have 10 minutes! Close your books while writing your paragraph.

**S1:** Are we just summarising this text? [TR]

**T:** Write a short summary and add your own examples... and maybe your opinions too.

**S2:** Like what we eat or how much we eat them... [TR]

---

(Classroom observation, A.1#9)

After the teacher gave the instructions, S1 asked for clarification about whether they were expected to simply summarise the given text. The teacher here explicitly wanted them to include their own examples and opinions in the summary. This could be considered as an attempt at authentication through which a text (i.e. input) with information that could be appealing for most people in general (e.g. balanced diet) became more relevant and personal with individual’s own samples and opinions. Although she gave students 10 minutes to finish their summary it took longer than planned. Some students took notes while reading the text again and some started writing their summary while their books were still open. Except for a couple of students, most students seemed to work enthusiastically on their summary. When they finished, the teacher asked volunteers to read their summaries aloud. She also corrected their grammar mistakes.

---

T: Yes?

S1: According to my opinion, a balanced diet takes a very big place in our life because it keeps us healthy and active by giving what our bodies need. So what should we do to have a balanced diet? We should eat... [she continues] For example, I try to eat low-fat dairy products in my diet. I... [she continues].

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(Classroom observation, A.1#9)

Although students' summaries were relatively similar to the original text, they added a few sentences about their daily diet (e.g. the amount they consumed particular food) or their opinions about the food groups in the textbook. At the end, the teacher showed a new page about doing sport activities to stay healthy and asked students to look at the board.

Re-writing and summarising activities were usually used in the language lessons in School A as the group of language teachers here strongly argued for the benefits of such activities in language learning (Field notes, School A). In Classroom A.1, moreover, the teacher often encouraged students to personalise their outputs in these activities. This was pointed out by the teacher during our interview as well (turn 50).

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50      Kamile: If you notice, I usually ask students to write a summary or a short piece after reading activities... and ask them to put something personal in their writing, like their comments maybe. I find it better and more useful than just summary writing.

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(Kamile, 130408)

In these activities, students were encouraged to go beyond simply summarising the input text. Hence their outputs were considered useful (in terms of language learning) and genuine (in terms of involving personal opinions). Indeed, this could be seen as the teacher's attempt to facilitate students' authentication of the text as



well. This view was also mentioned by Ezgi, who described such activities as useful to practise writing in the classroom (turn 52).

51	Erkan:	The teacher asked you to read the text again, then close your books and write a summary... with your opinions and such. How was that activity?
52	Ezgi:	It was good in a sense that you elaborate your summary. It was an ordinary writing task for us because she usually asks us to write things and include our own opinions or comments. That activity... it was good. It was good for practising.
53	Erkan:	I see. Some just summarised word by word and others included their own opinions or samples about... about a healthy diet.
54	Ezgi:	I mean it's good to include your thoughts. That helps you improve your own style as well... to express yourself in your writing I guess.

(Ezgi, 130318)

When commenting on the classroom activity described above, Ezgi considered these kinds of exercises as a good opportunity to express herself in writing as well as to develop her own writing style (turns 54). Yusuf also made a similar comment and described it as a useful writing activity. He claimed that including their thoughts and examples apparently turned the activity into something more than simply producing a summary of the input text (turn 57).

56	Erkan:	// . How was that activity?
57	Yusuf:	It was good... I mean it was like a rewriting activity... you need to understand what you've read and writing about it with your comments. It was good. It's better to include your thoughts or examples and write something like this rather than just writing a simple summary.
58	Erkan:	I see. She explicitly wanted you to include your thoughts.
59	Yusuf:	Yes, she asked us to include them. I think simply summarising isn't a big deal. I think, I want to say this clearly, I mean the essential thing is that students can add their own thoughts and comments to a text, and produce something different.
64	Yusuf:	Overall the text was about a scientific fact with numbers and terms. It can be argued how much personal comments you can include here. It depends on people I guess... on how you can personalise it. Maybe you can include something like... like you should do this and do that to have a healthy diet, healthy life and your own sentences... but maybe it wasn't the best text allowing us

In fact, he stressed that students should be given a chance to include their own comments and create texts different from the original input in the classroom (turn 59). In general, however, Yusuf claimed that the text on a balanced diet might not be the best input to be personalised since it included relatively factual information. In other words, although both the teacher and the students acknowledged the benefits of creating genuine outputs by adding personal thoughts, Yusuf pointed out that not all texts would allow students to be ‘*very creative*’ in this process (turn 64).

Overall, this sample (Person#2) presented the teacher’s attempt to authenticate a generic textbook input through personalisation and the students’ positive responses to this attempt. The extracts from the students’ interviews, moreover, demonstrated that they were able to authenticate the text by making clear connections between the classroom task and everyday life.

### **5.3.3. Towards ‘authentication’**

Both samples (Person#1 and Person#2) presented in this theme included writing tasks in which students were asked to revise or elaborate the given input by adding their creativity and/or personal samples and opinions. In Person#1, the students were asked to use the short stories they had selected and create their own versions based on their stories (e.g. writing a dialogue, drawing a cartoon). In Person#2, they were encouraged to write a summary based on the text given in the textbook (i.e. a balanced diet) and add examples from their own diet. The outputs received positive responses by the students and they were considered personal, relevant and meaningful in both pedagogical and personal levels.

It can be claimed that both the teacher's and students' acts and attempts of personalisation led into authentication in the samples presented above. The process involves the teacher's (in Person#2) and my (in Person#1) roles and acts in tailoring the input and designing a classroom task to encourage students to personalise it in order to promote genuine outputs. Furthermore, it encompasses students' validation of the inputs provided and personalisation of them by making their choices and adding their opinions and examples.

#### **5.4. Spontaneous remarks within the flow of the lesson**

Throughout data analysis process in all units of analysis, 'spontaneity' was observed by some means or another. Analysed inductively, data revealed that spontaneity often emerged within brief but salient incidents in Classroom A.1. As a result, this last theme addresses 'spontaneous remarks' that formed and influenced the overall interaction in lesson. These remarks will be described and discussed below in terms of authentication of particular incidents in the classroom by students and the teacher. As I observed in Classroom A.1, most students were able to easily share their thoughts and comments during the lesson. These comments and expressions, usually uttered spontaneously by students, were often recognised by the teacher and they shaped the flow of the lesson in particular classroom incidents. In that sense, these moments were categorised as 'students' voice heard by the teacher' in the data analysis.

In this theme, 'spontaneous remarks' refer to utterances or responses, by the students and the teacher, that were given in an unplanned or instantaneous way in response to particular classroom texts, tasks or incidents in general. For example, a short spontaneous comment or a prompt reaction by a student to a text can be considered

as a spontaneous remark. In this theme, moreover, the aim is to show how such remarks by the students emerged in the classroom context and to what extent they were recognised and responded to by the teacher as part of authentication. Through extracts selected in this theme, a dialogical interaction between the students and the teacher will be demonstrated in order to describe and discuss the process of authentication in the classroom. The extracts will be presented under two specific samples, the first of which is about the teacher's responses to unforeseen conditions. The two samples in this theme are labelled as Spon#1 and Spon#2.

#### 5.4.1. Spon#1

This first sample (Spon#1) addresses the teacher's instantaneous responses to unforeseen conditions in the classroom context. The current situation in the lesson presented below was labelled as an 'unforeseen condition' because it was not an anticipated one by the teacher before the lesson, particularly in terms of her lesson plan (i.e. to introduce the 'relative clauses' in English). It was the first lesson on Monday morning and some of the students were absent because they had been on a school trip at the weekend and come back very late on Sunday night. When she entered the classroom, the teacher noticed that several students were absent. This was an unexpected situation and after glancing over the class she started the lesson by asking if these students had come back from the trip.

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**T:** The ones who went to the trip  
haven't come yet, have they? [TR]

**S1:** No, they haven't [TR]  
**S2:** There are also other absent  
students [TR]

**T:** Can you say 'the students who  
went to the trip today haven't come  
yet'? Who can say this in English?  
[TR]

**S1:** Today...  
**S3:** The students who go to... went to  
trip didn't come to the school.

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<b>T:</b> Can you write it on the board?	<b>S4:</b> Is this a message? Do you mean you shouldn't skip your lessons? But they arrived around 4 am I guess [TR]
<b>T:</b> Can you say that? The students who went to the trip arrived at 4 am. [TR]	<b>S4:</b> Student who went to the trip went back to their homes at about 4 am.
<b>T:</b> Then, the students who went to the trip should be back with good memories [TR]	<b>S1:</b> Memories? <b>S2:</b> Oh, good memories! [TR, in sarcastic]
<b>T:</b> Can you also write it down? [TR to S4].	<b>S1:</b> Students who...

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(Classroom observation, A.1#13)

The teacher started the dialogue from her own observation and developed it through the students' answers. Although the dialogue was mainly conducted in Turkish, the teacher asked students to translate particular sentences into English and write them on the board. All of these sentences included relative clauses. While students were writing these sentences down, one of the students, the classroom representative<sup>8</sup>, dropped his desk very loudly. The teacher gave an instantaneous response and asked students to make a sentence about this.

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<b>T:</b> [to S2] OK, Etem, say this in English: Etem, our classroom president, has brought the curtain down, ruined it [TR]	<b>S2:</b> I'm sorry. <b>S2:</b> Yes?
<b>T:</b> Let's translate this sentence. Etem, who is the classroom president, dropped the desk. Yes? [TR]	<b>Ss:</b> [laughing] <b>S2:</b> Viran? How can I say it in English? [TR] <b>S3:</b> Let's go and inform the owner right now! [TR]
<b>T:</b> In fact, he's the representative of our class. But we honour him as a president.	<b>S4:</b> The president... <b>S5:</b> Can we say 'president'?
	<b>S2:</b> Help me! [TR, to S3]

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(Classroom observation, A.1#13)

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<sup>8</sup> 'classroom president' or 'class prefect' could be the alternative translations for this phrase ('sınıf başkanı' in English).

The teacher's sentence had explicit references to the Turkish shadow play *Karagöz and Hacivat*, every episode of which ends with Karagöz ruining the stage and bringing the curtain down<sup>9</sup>. The students found this reference humorous and S3 finished the 'ending lines' with appropriate phrases. After a short talk on this sentence and how to translate it into English, S2 wrote it on the board.

After writing the translated sentences on the board, the teacher showed a reading text on the screen and read it aloud as it was not in the student textbook. It was about '*environmentally friendly architecture*'. After reading the text with students, the teacher asked questions about environmentally friendly or interesting architecture that could be seen around them. Finally, she showed five sentences from the text, all of which included relative clauses. As the teacher explicitly emphasised these sentences and all relative clauses were underlined, the students understood that the topic of the lesson was 'relative clauses' and made a connection between the topic and the sentences they had written at the beginning of the lesson.

	<b>S1:</b> Oh, that's why we wrote these sentences on the board! They were related to this! [TR]
<b>T:</b> Yes	<b>S2:</b> Relative clauses...
	(Classroom observation, A.1#13)

After identifying the topic as 'relative clause', the teacher and students worked on the sentences one by one and discussed the grammatical rules and functions. The teacher also provided a clear explanation in English and used the sentences written on the board to exemplify her explanations (i.e. '*Etem, who is our classroom president... It's non-defining here because we have one Etem, our precious Etem... We give extra information about him*'). These sentences spontaneously created by

<sup>9</sup> retrieved from <http://www.turkishculture.org/performing-arts/theatre/shadow-theatre-90.html>

the teacher and students in response to specific contextual factors were connected to the pedagogical aim of the lesson. Here, it is worth noting that the students were able to translate these sentences with the relative clauses without difficulty because of their high level language proficiency, which made this particular event take place quite smoothly. The teacher also acknowledged this fact and stated that she had asked students to translate those complex sentences with the relative clause only because she knew that they could do it (Kamile, 130408).

After the lesson, I also conducted an interview with Yusuf to find out his thoughts about the lesson. He stated that it was nice to realise that the sentences ‘randomly’ made at the beginning of the lesson had been in fact related to the topic (turn 04).

03	Erkan:	// And how was the lesson today?
04	Yusuf:	It was good. In the first lesson we translated the sentences we randomly said in Turkish into English. Then we realised that they were all related to the topic. It was nice.
05	Erkan:	So they weren't random at all?
06	Yusuf:	Normally they were random but interestingly they fit the situation in the classroom. I was really surprised.
07	Erkan:	Do you think the teacher somehow planned that?
08	Yusuf:	How? The sentences emerged spontaneously... like Etem dropped the desk. I mean they can't be planned. They were random. Then all of the sentences became related to the topic. The teacher asked us to translate them and write them on the board. Then we saw that they were all about the relative clauses.
09	Erkan:	At the beginning you were just translating then?
10	Yusuf:	Yes. We thought we were just translating, as a translation activity.
17	Erkan:	What do you think about this? She could directly introduce the relative clause through some other sentences.
18	Yusuf:	But it's better in this way. Actually she also showed that, I mean, how we use language in Turkish in our daily life can have a place in the lesson... in learning English. Because we didn't know we were going to study relative clauses... but we were studying relative clauses while we were translating our sentences.

(Yusuf, 130408)

Since the sentences were made spontaneously, or rather instantaneously, in the classroom, Yusuf was ‘surprised’ when it became obvious that all of the sentences were with the relative clauses and they served a broader pedagogical purpose rather than being merely a translation activity (turns 06, 08 and 10). Moreover, Yusuf acknowledged and appreciated how the teacher introduced the relative clauses in the lesson as it helped them to see the connections between language uses in Turkish and in English while the underlying goal was to practise a grammar point in the target language (turn 18). Therefore, the authentication process here included the teacher’s introduction of the relative clause by addressing the current conditions in the classroom and by asking students to translate sentences from Turkish to English as well as the students’ positive responses to this acts.

In our interview session, the teacher explained that she aimed at trying to understand what was going on in the classroom and accommodating the flow of the lesson by spontaneously including her observations (turns 20 and 54).

20	Kamile:	Sometimes, I eavesdrop on what they are talking with their classmates or in groups. Or I observe what’s going on in the classroom. Then I spontaneously include these issues and we talk about this together.
48	Kamile:	For example, we’ve had a lesson on life recently. There were some language teachers visiting our school to discuss some issues, to find out what we’re doing in some certain cases. It had been arranged beforehand but it took longer than it was expected... so I was five or ten minutes late for the first lesson. On that day we had the ‘street ball’ tournament in the school and fifteen students thought the teacher wouldn’t come so they went outside to watch the tournament, and other students were studying in the classroom. They were thinking that I wasn’t in the school and the lesson was cancelled. When I went to the classroom, I didn’t want to get very angry... but then I came up with an idea. I said they should feel sorry and learn ‘ <i>I wish I hadn’t done that... If only I hadn’t done...</i> ’ then I acted as if I was angry and said ‘9th grades shouldn’t be this much irresponsible. How could you leave the classroom without my permission? You know



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		where I was, why didn't you come?' and such... then everyone came to the classroom while I was preparing the laptop. My intention was to teach 'I wish I hadn't done' rather than to scold the students. When everyone came to the class, all of them apologised but I stopped them and asked them to write the sentences on the board on their notebooks. I wrote several sentences on the board 'It's a pity that you were late... I'm sorry...' and such. I wrote everything down then I said you could rephrase these sentences as this and that. All of them were related to what they had done... like we wish we had let the teacher know, we wish we hadn't left the class... we wrote ten similar sentences and of course the whole class was silent until I finished this. In the next lesson, they wrote ' <i>we are very sorry, if only we hadn't left the class without permission.</i> ' Now this sentence, the structures of 'if only...' and 'I wish I hadn't done...' became directly related to that event and fixed to it.
52	Kamile:	Because it wouldn't have been permanent. They experienced it through that case so they won't forget it.
53	Erkan:	So most probably, they'll remember it.
54	Kamile:	It's also related to... for example when I start a lesson, I usually observe the class... observe a situation happening in the classroom and try to understand it. Then I create sentences related to it.

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(Kamile, 130408)

In this interview extract, Kamile shared a classroom incident about how she had framed the lesson around an emerging condition. Apparently, although the topic was planned beforehand, how she introduced it and how she came up with the specific samples could be regarded as an act of spontaneity. The teacher came up with an idea as a response to the current situation and she designed the lesson accordingly to practise a specific language structure by making context-related sentences. Before she told the details, she described the lesson as an example of '*a lesson on life*' since it was framed through a real experience, thus directly touched both the teacher's and students' lives within that particular context. In the following lesson, the students wrote a sentence on the whiteboard to express their apologies of their own accord. According to Kamile, this sentence and the grammar item in it became directly related to that incident, which made it somewhat more permanent in the learning process (turns 48 and 52).

In the classroom extracts above, although the main topics to be introduced in the lessons were not ‘spontaneously’ planned, the way in which they could be framed and studied was largely shaped by spatial and temporal factors in the classroom context, which often emerged unexpectedly. Here teacher’s attempts to use familiar contextual details and events as well as to make connections between pedagogical goals and current conditions can be seen as her act of authentication. Likewise, the students’ attempts to establish sense and relevance of the text (or classroom interaction) through concrete contextual examples and explanations can be considered as their role in this authentication process.

The following sample will also address spontaneous responses and the dynamic interaction between students and the teacher, but this time it will be demonstrated through remarks referring to contextual ‘realities’ outside the classroom.

#### **5.4.2. Spon#2**

This second sample (Spon#2) also includes the teacher’s responses to the spontaneous remarks given by the students. Here, the episodes of spontaneous interaction emerging in the classroom context spotlighted the process of authentication of the pedagogical task and of the overall process.

The extracts below were taken from a lesson in which students were studying the unreal present conditionals. The teacher presented a text that was not in the students’ textbook. It was about three teenagers’ responses to the given situation: ‘*What would you do if you spilled hot chocolate on your parents’ wedding album?*’ Students read the text on the screen and completed the sentences with the correct forms of verbs in

the conditional clauses. Then the teacher asked students to answer the same question in their own words and write it down on their notebooks.

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<b>T:</b> Tricky situations... write down one of these and also your own answer. If you had such tricky situation, what would you do?	[Ss writing their answers]
<b>T:</b> Yes?	<p><b>S1:</b> If I spilled hot chocolate on the album, I wouldn't do anything, but I would tell the truth.</p> <p><b>S2:</b> I would change it and nobody would understand anything.</p> <p><b>S3:</b> I would be honest and apologise my mother.</p> <p><b>S4:</b> I would say sorry to my mother, I would try to dry it.</p> <p><b>S5:</b> I would tell the truth.</p>
<b>T:</b> Honesty is the best policy... You are all on the honesty side today. Anything more interesting?	<b>S6:</b> I would cry and my mom wouldn't get angry with me. I usually do this.
<b>T:</b> So tears would solve the problem... interesting.	<p><b>S2:</b> I experienced something like this. It was something else but kind of similar, I still haven't told my parents about this [TR]</p> <p><b>Ss:</b> Ooo...</p>
<b>T:</b> He's confessing now.	<p><b>S3:</b> The big confession!</p> <p><b>S2:</b> Do you want me to tell it in Turkish or in English? [TR]</p> <p><b>Ss:</b> Turkish.</p>
<b>T:</b> Try to tell it in English.	<b>S2:</b> You know that Kale keys have an 'emniyet card' and it's very important.
<b>T:</b> Otherwise they can't be duplicated.	<p><b>S2:</b> I broke that about a year ago and still they don't know. We never use it so they never ask. Now it's gone.</p> <p><b>S3:</b> Shame on you [TR]</p> <p><b>S4:</b> What's security card? [TR]</p> <p><b>S2:</b> It has a security number on it and you use to copy the original cards [TR]</p>

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(Classroom observation, A.1#11)

At the beginning, most of the students made relatively similar sentences and the teacher asked if anyone had a different, 'more interesting' answer. In response to the teacher's attempt to elicit 'unusual' answers, S6 gave her answer and S2 shared an experience he had related to the topic. It was about that he had broken a security card

of his house keys and his parents were still unaware of this. At this point, a ‘real’ confession was included in the list of statements with ‘unreal’ present conditionals. Other students seemed interested and involved while S2 was sharing his experience. Here, one can claim that S2’s spontaneous remark along with other students’ genuine responses from their personal experiences revealed their authentication of the target language structure and the topic. In other words, ‘real’ and personal cases were shared in this exercise of the unreal present conditionals. Indeed, compared to ‘spilling hot chocolate on the parents’ wedding album’, students’ personal stories were seemed to be more authentic within that particular context.

After this, the teacher showed seven situations and she wanted students to talk about what they would do in the given situations (e.g. ‘*You have won the lottery and you are very rich now*’). The students gave similar but funny and sincere answers.

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<b>T:</b> You haven’t got much money to pay the bill in a restaurant.	<b>S1:</b> I would offer to wash the dishes. <b>S2:</b> If I didn’t have enough money, I would run away. <b>S3:</b> I would pass the Mexican border! <b>Ss:</b> [laughing]
<b>T:</b> But there is no Mexican border in Turkey... maybe the Syrian border?	<b>S3:</b> OK... no! I wouldn’t do that, there is a war there.

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(Classroom observation, A.1#11)

In this extract, students gave some humorous answers and S3’s answer was about passing the Mexican border (in the break time, he stated that his answer had been just ‘a joke’ referring to what one could easily see in American movies). His answer, which I categorised as a ‘spontaneous remark’, was acknowledged by the teacher through a ‘realistic’ comment (i.e. passing the Syrian border instead of the Mexican border as Turkey and Syria are neighbour countries). In response to this, S3 hesitated for a second, and then he rejected the teacher’s comment due to the civil war that

was going on in Syria. At the end, S3's spontaneous response, which could be considered funny but unrealistic, turned into a realistic comment in this dialogue.

In the interview session with Yusuf, he shared his overall comments about this activity. It is worth noting that Yusuf was the student who shared the story about breaking the security card of his home keys in the lesson (S2).

09	Yusuf:	// Then in the first lesson, we... we talked about 'tricky situations', it was good.
10	Erkan:	Like if you spilled hot chocolate on the album, what would you do? and such.
11	Yusuf:	Yes
12	Erkan:	How was it?
13	Yusuf:	It was interesting. If we had just done it as a writing task, it wouldn't have been interesting. I think it was good that we also did it verbally. Because you wonder about some people's answers... for example let's say there is a funny person and you really wonder what his/her answers would be.
14	Erkan:	Some were trying to be funny.
15	Yusuf:	I think as long as it's in English and with correct tense, I mean, it isn't important what s/he's doing or whether s/he's telling the truth. At the end we are having fun, just enjoying it.
16	Erkan:	Then you told your story about breaking the security card or losing it.
17	Yusuf:	I broke it yes.
18	Erkan:	How was it? You even asked whether to tell it in Turkish or in English.
19	Yusuf:	In English, I mean I asked that question just for the sake of asking. I knew that she would ask me to tell it in English. It wasn't very difficult for me. It was a bit spontaneous. I could have given the answer only and I did... but I remembered this experience and wanted to share it. It was nice, I shared an incident in my life in the classroom so it became more interesting.

(Yusuf, 130325)

Yusuf claimed that the activity was interesting mainly because it was conducted as a speaking activity in which students could share their own answers rather than a grammar-focused task. Apparently, students were curious about their fellow classmates' answers some of which could be unusual and funny (turn 13). According to Yusuf, they were enjoying the activity and would not be concerned about whether the sentences were true or not as long as the target structure was used correctly (turn

15). As for his experience sharing, Yusuf stated that it was nice and interesting to share a personal experience in the classroom and this spontaneous sharing was not very difficult to be conducted in English (turn 19). In short, he validated, thus authenticated the process by combining both the pedagogical and personal aspects in this activity.

All in all, the sample described above can be regarded as one of the spontaneous remarks in the flow of the lesson in which students could share (1) humorous and sincere responses and/or (2) personal experiences or observations from their daily lives. In fact, these spontaneous moments can be seen as the core of the process of authentication here, which includes the real responses to unreal situations.

#### **5.4.3. Towards ‘authentication’**

In this theme, the extracts from observation notes and interviews were presented to discuss how the acts of authentication by students and the teacher occurred in particular classroom incidents through spontaneous remarks as well as responses to these remarks. These acts and attempts demonstrated above stimulated not only students’ but also the teacher’s engagement and agency in the lesson.

The teacher, especially in Spon#1, acknowledged that she could be flexible and respond instantaneously to emerging conditions or spontaneous acts in the classroom. Likewise, the students appreciated the fact that their contribution and opinions expressed in a spontaneous way were recognised by the teacher in the lesson. Both the teacher’s and students’ responses and engagement here can be seen as strong indicators of the genesis account of authenticity since their spontaneous acts reflect their actual volition. Moreover, the dialogic nature of the overall

interaction in these incidents was recognised by the participants, which was found both pedagogically useful and communicatively effective.

## 5.5. Summary

All in all, three themes were highlighted in this chapter to illustrate how the process of authentication was observed in specific classroom samples from Classroom A.1.

Themes	Samples	
Recontextualising non-pedagogical texts in the classroom	A reading text selected by TTs and the teacher's intervention to review the vocabulary items	Recon#1
	Movie scenes presented by TTs to review the if clauses	Recon#2
Adding a personal touch to task outputs	Making a short story long in the classroom	Person#1
	Asking students to include their opinions in their writing	Person#2
Spontaneous remarks within the flow of the lesson	Teacher's instantaneous responses to emerging conditions	Spon#1
	Real responses to unreal situations	Spon#2

Table 5.2. Themes – Classroom A.1

In the first theme (Section 5.2), I presented two classroom samples in which the teacher trainees (TTs) presented non-pedagogical texts as input in the lessons (i.e. a reading text on Pompeii adapted from the UNESCO website and the movie scenes selected by the TTs). The TTs' re-contextualisation of these non-pedagogical texts in the classroom context, the students' (co)construction of the validity and relevance of these texts in both samples and the teacher's intervention in the first sample were demonstrated as the participants' attempts at authentication.

In the second theme (Section 5.3), the process of authentication was demonstrated through two classroom samples in which the students had been asked to use the input texts and create their own outputs (e.g. short story, summary). In both samples,

personalisation emerged as a main theme in which the students used their words, opinions or stories, thus their genuine contribution to the classroom tasks. Finally, the third theme of this chapter (Section 5.4) involved two samples of the spontaneous responses given in the lessons. The first sample demonstrated the teacher's flexibility and spontaneous adaptation to the unforeseen situations in the classroom. The second sample was about the spontaneous remarks by the students and the responses given by the teacher. In both samples, spontaneity emerged as a means of authentication by the students and the teacher through which their voluntarily acts and attempts shaped the flow of the lesson.



## CHAPTER 6

# FINDINGS (A.2)

### **6.0. Introduction**

In this chapter, I will present specific details and findings from Classroom A.2, the other classroom observed in School A. After presenting the background information about the research participants and overall classroom environment, I will address the details of the data collection procedures in this unit of analysis. Then, I will present three themes that emerged in this unit of analysis. A summary of the findings will be presented at the end.

### **6.1. Background**

Background information related to this particular unit of analysis includes the details about research participants, classroom context and data collection process. As data analysis procedures have been already explained in detail in Chapter 4, the related section in this chapter refers to some examples to illustrate the analysis process (Appendix 6.1) and involves the themes developed from Classroom A.2.

#### **6.1.1. Participants**

Participants from Classroom A.2 were the language teacher, two teacher trainees and two students. Asuman (a pseudonym used for the language teacher) was in her 50s and she had nearly 30 years of teaching experience. She had worked in different state and private schools in Turkey before she was assigned as a language teacher to School A. At the beginning of the term, Asuman was reluctant to become a research

participant in my study. In fact, on the very first day we met, she expressed that it might be very difficult for me to find a volunteer teacher for this study in School A.

School A 05.09.2012	Asuman told me that it might be difficult to conduct my research with the teachers in this school (even to find an 'available' one) as they were 'very busy' and might not want to allocate their time for me.
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(Research Diary)

However, before and during my pilot study, I spent most of my time in the language teachers' room and got closer to the teachers. I joined their conversations, had lunch with them and helped them prepare worksheets. After this period, Asuman decided to participate in the main phase of my study as a volunteer teacher. Following her weekly schedule, she agreed that I could observe her classrooms for two lesson hours per week.

During some of my classroom observations, there were also three teacher trainees (TT) in the classroom. They prepared and taught some of the lessons (e.g. classroom observations #3, #6 and #12<sup>10</sup>). As I observed their lessons and issues about their lessons were discussed during the interviews with students, I included two of the teacher trainees (TT3 and TT4) as research participants. I conducted an interview with them at the end of the second phase of data collection process.

There were 26 students in the classroom (15 girls and 11 boys). The students were 14-15 years old and most of them had started studying English at the 4<sup>th</sup> grade (when they were 9-10 years old). As a result of the placement test for the 9<sup>th</sup> grades conducted at the beginning of the academic year, Classroom A.2 was comprised of students with A2 proficiency level (according to CEFR). I conducted interviews with

<sup>10</sup> In this chapter, the numbers with hash in parenthesis refer to relevant classroom observation notes.

two students from this classroom. In this study, the pseudonyms Emre and Beyza were used for these two students. Emre was 15 years old and he had graduated from a state school in Ankara before he started the 9<sup>th</sup> grade at this school. Beyza was 14 years old and she had studied at a state school until 7<sup>th</sup> grade, then she had studied at and graduated from a private school in Ankara. Both of the students could be easily observed from the place where I sat during my observations.

### 6.1.2. Classroom context



Picture 6.1 Classroom A.2

As in Classroom A.1, although each student had his/her individual desk, they placed their desks close to their neighbouring classmates' desks next to them and created three rows of desks in the classroom. The teacher's desk was placed in the front, on the window side. There was a smart-board on the front wall but it was not being used because of some technical issues. As a result, they used the green and white boards on the wall and the projector attached to the ceiling. There were also students' lockers at the back of the classroom. Students sometimes stood up and went to their lockers during the lessons to take their notebooks or other materials.

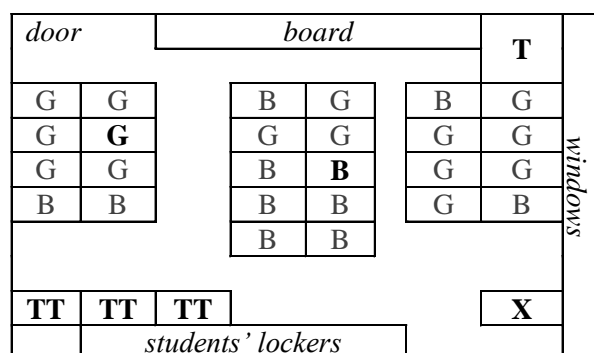


Figure 6.1. Physical layout of Classroom A.2

Before each classroom observation, I drew a rough sketch of seating arrangements on my notebook. Figure 6.1 shows the general layout of Classroom A.2; however, it should be noted that some students usually changed their places before lessons. In the figure, the letter ‘B’ is used to show male students and ‘G’ is used to show female students. ‘TT’ shows where the teacher trainees usually sat and ‘X’ shows where I often sat during the classroom observations. The letters ‘G’ and ‘B’ in bold show two student interviewees selected in this classroom.

The proficiency level of this classroom was stated as A2 as a result of the placement test for 9<sup>th</sup> grades conducted at the beginning of the academic year. Although MoNE had provided a textbook called *Yes You Can, A2.3* for this proficiency level, they often used *Solutions Türkiye A2* (OUP) as a supplementary textbook in the classroom. The teacher sometimes used iTools, special software of the textbook (*Solutions*, OUP) in order to deliver the lessons.

In Classroom A.2, the teacher and students had a friendly relationship but they always paid attention to the boundaries between their institutional positions. As 9<sup>th</sup> grade was the first year of the high school and most of the students came from different environments, they spent a considerable amount of time to get to know each

other in the first months. However, in the second term, thus in the second phase of my research, students seemed to have closer relationships with their fellow classmates and created their own small groups.

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04	<p>Asuman: I also observe them as... for example, their relationships as friends and classmates. There is a lot of sharing, they have good friendships. When there is an issue, for example when a student makes noise and disturbs others, students always look at that student and warn him/her through eye contact. So they can control each other. Especially girls, they behave in a responsible way and try to maintain a good classroom atmosphere.</p>
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(Asuman, 130408)

In the interview, the teacher also shared her observation of the relationships among students. Asuman emphasised a particular classroom culture in which students had good friendships and they could develop a control mechanism in terms of classroom management.

### **6.1.3. Data collection**

I observed Classroom A.2 between 30.11.2012 and 04.01.2013 (first phase) and between 22.02.2013 and 05.04.2013 (second phase). In total, I conducted thirteen classroom observations, nine of which were audio-recorded. Except for two weeks, I observed two sequential English lessons on Friday mornings every week (in total, 24 lessons were observed). I always sat at the back of the classroom during my observations and took my notes on my notebook in English.

Semi-structured interviews were also conducted with the participants. The interviews were carried out in the school building, usually during lunch time. Except for the first interview with the teacher, all of the interview sessions were audio-recorded with the permission of the participants. In the first interview, the teacher did not want to be audio-recorded. As a result, I had to take notes on my notebook during the

interview and transcribed the interview on my personal computer as soon as the session ended. The details of interviews (e.g. numbers, duration and place) can be seen in Chapter 4.

#### **6.1.4. Data analysis and findings**

In total there were around 270 codes developed inductively. It is worth reminding the reader that the data analysis includes the *contextual coding* process. That is, emerging codes were developed and grouped around certain classroom incidents (e.g. a classroom task, a conversation between students and their teacher) as well as their relevance to each other. A specific illustration of this process from Classroom A.2 can be found in Appendix 6.1.

The three themes presented and discussed in this chapter are: Everyday language vs. language used inside the classroom (Section 6.2), discrepancy of interpretation (Section 6.3) and procedural vs. spontaneous outcomes in the classroom (Section 6.4). Each theme in this chapter involves two separate sets of data samples addressing related categories in the context of distinctive classroom incidents. Moreover, each set of samples was coded to enable easy access for future reference. As mentioned in Chapter 4, the data presentation here is comprised of extracts from the textbook, field journal and interviews in order to provide triangulation of data methods and a rich contextualisation.

#### **6.2. Comparing everyday language with language used in the classroom**

As reviewed in Chapter 2, ‘authenticity’ has been usually described and discussed from a text-based perspective (e.g. Gilmore, 2007a; Little, 1997; Porter and Roberts, 1981). Here, ‘text’ can refer to any written or spoken language samples and materials

which could be utilised in the classroom context as an input or output. In this theme, ‘language used inside the classroom’ refers to any texts produced for the language lesson such as texts written by the teacher as samples or presented in the course book. These texts have pedagogical purposes along with communicative ones by their nature. ‘Everyday language’, on the other hand, refers to language samples one can encounter in daily life such as daily conversations outside the classroom or email exchanges between friends, which can primarily have communicative purposes rather than pedagogical ones.

As mentioned before, the teacher and teacher trainees were explicitly asked to describe ‘authenticity’ in the interviews. Asuman, the teacher, explained authenticity as ‘original things used in everyday life’ and stated that she sometimes asked students ‘to watch TV series in English’ because by doing that they could see ‘foreigners’ speaking the ‘real language’ (Asuman, 130408). By ‘foreigners’, she presumably referred to native speakers of English. In another occasion, she also mentioned that students had the opportunity to ‘listen to British speakers’ in the listening parts of the textbook and they could ‘get familiar with it’ (Field notes, 28.12.2012). As her initial description could be framed within the correspondence account of authenticity, I asked her to compare the texts used in the classroom and outside the classroom in the second interview session.

51	Erkan:	Then do you find those listening or reading texts similar to texts that students may encounter outside the classroom? Or they are=
52	Asuman:	=there are similar ones as well as different ones. Actually, students easily find the different ones and they don’t get very interested in them. But mostly they look quite similar.

(Asuman, 130408)

Asuman claimed that students could, in fact, grade the texts and usually did not get very interested in the ones that looked significantly different from the texts they may come across in daily life (turn 52). Thus, if students find the given texts rather artificial, they might not give positive responses in their engagement with those texts. This could be seen as a clear reference to the process of students' validation in which their responses are based on the extent to which pedagogical texts correspond to their counterparts outside the classroom. At the end, Asuman stated that the reading and listening texts in the course book usually seemed similar to the texts used outside the classroom.

To elaborate this theme, I will present two samples below, which are labelled as CLang#1 and CLang#2, respectively. The first one is about a 'news report' in the textbook and it aims to address the TT' and students' comments on this particular text.

### 6.2.1. CLang#1

Similar to the teacher's description above, the teacher trainees' descriptions of authenticity were also mainly text-oriented. For example, TT3 focused on 'text authenticity' in her description of what 'authentic' could refer to in ELT.

82	Erkan:	// and what do you think about [authenticity]?
83	TT3:	Authentic... like the dialogues, some of them are like they have been made in order to teach a structure but others are like they can be a part of daily speaking. The important thing is to make the daily life being felt there, I mean it shouldn't be obvious that it's artificial... that it's been made just for practice.
84	Erkan:	And what do you think about the content or the activities in the textbook in terms of that? Do they look like they are for teaching a particular structure or like they place the structure within more daily things?
85	TT3:	For example, I did the listening part last week and there were some people talking about natural disasters. You will listen to them and find out which natural disasters



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they were talking about, but it was only one or two sentences. Students may not elicit the information from one or two sentences so it looked a bit inadequate to me. Because there were only two sentences with key words... it was obvious that they were prepared to teach those words. I would prefer that in a context like in an integrated way.

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(TT, 130408)

TT3 stated that ‘authenticity’ was mainly related to the degree to which texts used in the classroom (e.g. dialogues in the textbook) had the qualities or ‘the feeling’ of daily life communication (turn 83). Indeed, she made a difference between texts produced with clear pedagogical purposes and texts used in everyday life (turn 83). Then she gave an example of a listening text from the textbook and claimed that it was a vocabulary activity merely with pedagogical purposes and inadequate communicative contextualisation (turn 85). Thus, to her, lack of contextualisation in the text resulted in an inauthentic input for students. In addition to purpose and contextualisation of a text presented in the classroom, there could be other factors that could affect students’ engagement with and responses to the text in terms of authenticity.

74	Erkan:	And how do you describe the term of ‘authentic’ <sup>11</sup> ?
75	TT4:	Actually authentic means... to me, all materials that can attract students’ attention and that are directly related to daily life are authentic.
76	Erkan:	Can you give me an example?
77	TT4:	The basic one is newspapers. You can implement them very easily, for example things like newspapers are usually used in English language textbooks.
78	Erkan:	In fact there was a part with a news report in the lesson you taught last week.
79	TT4:	Yes, it was a good one.
80	Erkan:	It was a reading text about an earthquake or something.
81	TT4:	Yes, yes, they... things that students can’t see outside don’t draw their attention and anything that they can see outside and that can attract their attention are authentic in my opinion.


(TT, 130408)

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<sup>11</sup> In the interview, I used the word ‘otantik’ in Turkish which can be directly translated as ‘authentic’ into English. In their responses, interviewees (TT4 in this sample and TT3 in the next one) also used the same word.

TT4 was the teacher trainee who taught the lesson with a text about Tipton Bay hurricane in Classroom A.2, which is presented below. She briefly described authenticity as the quality of materials that were ‘directly related to daily life’ and that could draw students’ attention (turns 75 and 81). Then she gave an example of using newspapers in the textbooks (turn 77) and she claimed that the text about the hurricane was ‘a good one’ from that perspective (turn 79).


The text about Tipton Bay hurricane was used in a lesson in which students practised vocabulary items related to natural disasters. As mentioned above, the lesson was taught by one of the teacher trainees (TT4). After talking about some videos about natural disasters, students matched the disasters with the pictures given in the textbook. Then, they listened to ten people on iTools and decided which natural disaster each person was speaking about. Finally, TT4 wanted students to look at exercise 6.

**6**  **3.06** Complete the news report with the words below. Listen and check.

damaged destroyed injured lasted left lost  
reached rescued sent struck

### Tipton Bay Hurricane

The hurricane <sup>1</sup> struck the town of Tipton Bay on the south coast at 4 p.m. on Saturday afternoon and <sup>2</sup> \_\_\_\_\_ for twelve hours. Winds <sup>3</sup> \_\_\_\_\_ speeds of 200 km/h. Luckily, people <sup>4</sup> \_\_\_\_\_ their homes before the hurricane arrived, and nobody <sup>5</sup> \_\_\_\_\_ their life. However, flying metal and glass <sup>6</sup> \_\_\_\_\_ about twenty people. Emergency services <sup>7</sup> \_\_\_\_\_ over 50 people from boats near the coast, and charities quickly <sup>8</sup> \_\_\_\_\_ food and tents to help people without homes. The hurricane seriously <sup>9</sup> \_\_\_\_\_ hundreds of buildings and <sup>10</sup> \_\_\_\_\_ crops in the fields around the town.



(Solutions Türkiye A2, p.66)

In the Exercise 6, students were asked to read ‘the news report’ and complete it with the given words. The text, which looked like a piece of a newspaper or magazine, was about a hurricane in Tipton. Students were given ten words and asked to fill in the blanks in the text with those words. The authors and publisher provided a list of sources with copyright permissions to be reproduced as extracts or adaptations in the acknowledgement part of the textbook. For example, as for sources used in the textbook, times.co.uk (p.26) and wikipedia.com (p.53) were given in the acknowledgements. However, the text about Tipton Bay Hurricane was not listed there, so it was specifically written for the textbook. Moreover, it was specially designed like a real newspaper clipping. Therefore, it is possible to consider this text as one of ‘authentic-like materials’ that attempts to recreate, or simulate, the conditions of naturalistic communication, and such texts ‘frequently constitute a major proportion of many ‘communicative’ textbooks’ (Murray, 1996, p.110).

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**TT:** First I want you to read Tipton Bay Hurricane, then try to fill in the blanks with the words.

**S1:** What about the meanings of these words? [TR]

**TT:** Damage?

**Ss:** Hasar vermek.

**TT:** You give what? Physical harm to something... and destroy?

**Ss:** Yıkamak.

**TT:** So? Damage or destroy? Which is more powerful?

**Ss:** Destroy.

**TT:** And injured?

**Ss:** Sakatlanmak.

**TT:** I think you know their meanings... struck? ... Ok, read the text. While reading the text, you will understand the meanings of words clearly.

**Ss:** [?]

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(Classroom observation, A.2#12)

TT4 first gave the instructions and asked students to complete the text. As I observed, they did not talk about the text in particular, but focused on the vocabulary activity. After one of the students asked for the meanings of the given words, TT4

explained some of them in English and students shared the Turkish equivalents. Students seemed unsure about the meaning of ‘struck’ so TT4 wanted them to read the text and elicit its meaning from the text. While students were doing the activity, the school bell rang. In the second lesson, students listened to the report on iTools and checked their answers. Some students were confused about the answers with ‘destroyed’ and ‘damaged’ in the text (i.e. *The hurricane seriously damaged hundreds of buildings and destroyed crops in the fields around the town*). Although TT4 had explained their meanings at the beginning of the activity, she explained it again. At the end, students read the sentences aloud one by one. At the end, the text was presented and studied as a vocabulary exercise in this lesson.

As discussed in Chapter 2, texts taken from newspapers or magazines are traditionally considered as ‘authentic’ since they have been produced to fulfil communicative purposes rather than primarily pedagogical ones. Moreover, textbook authors and producers tend to promote their materials by claiming that they include visuals, texts and activities that reflect real-life situations. This might be one of the main reasons for presenting the news report extract in the textbook like a real newspaper clipping. Moreover, to accomplish the particular purpose of the unit, the text was designed as a vocabulary exercise. Since ‘text authenticity’ has a significant place in the related ELT literature and was highlighted during our interviews with the teacher and teacher trainees, I tried to find out students’ views and thoughts about that as well.

33	Erkan:	How was that news report? Did it look like a real one?
34	Beyza:	It was realistic.
35	Erkan:	Why did you say that?
36	Beyza:	I mean it could happen... it looked realistic, there wasn't anything unusual.
37	Erkan:	So you mean about the content... and was it realistic in

		terms of... I mean, did it look like a real news report to you? Or did it look like a report written for the textbook?
38	Beyza:	I don't know... it seemed a real report, just with blanks for vocabulary teaching. It might have been taken from a real source, but I don't think they would do that.
39	Erkan:	Why not?
40	Beyza:	I don't know... I think they wouldn't make that much effort, or if they do, they need to write it explicitly.
41	Erkan:	You mean the source?
42	Beyza:	Yes, they would need to write the source.
43	Erkan:	Would it make any differences for you? Let's say it says BBC under the new report.
44	Beyza:	No, it wouldn't. But there is another thing... for example, if it was written for the textbook and it was very different or artificial, I mean different from normal reports, then it would make a difference. But that one was like a normal one, so it doesn't matter.

(Beyza, 130401)

Beyza stated that the text about Tipton Bay hurricane was 'realistic' in terms of its content (turn 36). That is, the characteristics and results of the hurricane might have been taken from a real life incident. To her, this was an essential criterion to grade the extent to which the text was realistic and relevant. Beyza claimed that if it had seemed explicitly contrived and artificial, then she would have approached the text in a different way and responded to it accordingly (turn 44). She also acknowledged the pedagogical purpose of the task by saying that it was a realistic task with a focus on vocabulary teaching (turn 38). Emre, on the other hand, portrayed the text as a typical reading text, which could be expected to find in a textbook.

33	Erkan:	How was that text?
34	Emre:	It was normal, I mean, a classic <sup>12</sup> reading text.
35	Erkan:	It was a news report. Did it look like a news report to you?
36	Emre:	It was like a news report.
37	Erkan:	Would it make a difference for you if it was written, let's say, BBC or CNN under that text?
38	Emre:	It might...
39	Erkan:	How?
40	Emre:	It would be like the original ones on the Internet or news... And if it was supported with visuals, I mean like a news report, pictures of the event and so on... it would be better.

<sup>12</sup> Emre used the word 'klasik' in Turkish, which can be translated into English as 'classic, typical or usual'. I preferred to use 'classic' to highlight his word-choice.

41	Erkan:	OK, I just wondered whether it would make any differences if it was a real news report.
42	Emre:	It was written to imitate a news report, it was not a real one. Probably they took the news, adjusted and simplified it for level A2.
43	Erkan:	What if the actual news had been presented in the lesson?
44	Emre:	It could be... in fact, they could've shown a video, news video from CNN or BBC, it would've been better. It would've been even more realistic.

(Emre, 130405)

Emre stated that although the text seemed realistic, it was not a real news report but only a text specially designed for language teaching. In fact, he explicitly claimed that the text had been produced to imitate a news report (turn 42). Moreover, he focused on the presentation of the text in the lesson rather than its content. To him, it would have been more realistic (turns 40 and 44) if the text had been presented with related visuals such as pictures or videos like they usually did on the news channels or websites. In that sense, although Emre did not find the text genuine in terms of its correspondence with the ones used outside the classroom, he validated the text as a 'typical' one within classroom context.

In this first sample (CLang#1), students tended to grade a text as 'realistic' in terms of its content and presentation. The text was expected to represent truly what it claimed to represent. That is, a news report for vocabulary exercise, for example, can be considered 'authentic' if it is validated as a relevant text in terms of providing (1) vocabulary practice and (2) a 'realistic' content and presentation that students might encounter in their daily life.

The second sample of this theme, which is presented below, aims to address both the students' and the teacher's views on some specific language items used in the

classroom to teach some grammar points. Thus, it is on the process of authentication of these items in the classroom context by the students and their teacher.

### 6.2.2. CLang#2

The aim of the lesson described in this second sample (CLang#2) was to introduce the passive voice in English. The teacher wrote a list of sentences on the board and asked students to rewrite those sentences in the passive voice. They studied the interrogative form in the passive voice after they had studied affirmative and negative sentences. The extract below was from this lesson delivered by the teacher.

Does she eat vegetables every day?	Are vegetables eaten every day?
Do they speak English?	Is English spoken?
Did you tidy your room yesterday?	Was your room tidied yesterday?
Is she making a cake now?	Is a cake being made now?
Have they prepared the table yet?	Has the table been prepared yet?
Is she going to send the invitation cards?	Are the invitation cards going to be sent?
Can she make a cake?	Can a cake be made?
What is she eating?	What is being eaten?
Who wrote Çalikusu?	Who was Çalikusu written by?
What ate fish?	What was fish eaten by?

(Classroom observation, A.2#9)

Although they rewrote all of the sentences correctly, a few students asked for clarification to understand some sentences (e.g. Can a cake be made? What is she eating? What ate fish?). I believed that they found those sentences relatively complicated, artificial or not identical with their counterparts in the active voice. In fact, the teacher also recognised this problem and after she wrote ‘Can she make a cake?’ she said ‘*I know this is not a good example, but at least it shows the structure... You can see the passive voice here*’ (#9). That is, she confirmed that the sentence was just for teaching the target structure rather than making sense to the students. In the interview sessions, I talked with students about the sample sentences used in this particular lesson.

29	Erkan:	What do you think about [those sentences]? It was about making questions in the passive voice, but it seemed the meanings weren't very clear?
30	Beyza:	I will definitely use English in my daily life at some point... in the future. So more appropriate examples can be given, suitable ones for the topic.
31	Erkan:	And what about their meanings?
32	Beyza:	Yes, it should be suitable in terms of meaning as well... because, for example I may... if someone speaks like that in Turkish, I may find it a bit strange.
40	Beyza:	So it should be meaningful and show the rule at the same time.

(Beyza, 130311)

Beyza stated that the purpose of learning English was to use it in daily life so she would prefer more appropriate examples in the classroom (turn 30) which should be both meaningful and relevant (turn 40). In fact, she referred to a possible conversation with someone person who learned and used Turkish with language samples which are lacking in meaning (turn 32). Emre, however, took a slightly different stance on using such samples for grammar teaching.

19	Erkan:	What do you think about those sample sentences?
20	Emre:	The purpose is to understand the form, we don't focus on the meaning. After we learn the structure we can make meaningful sentences. I think structure is more important at this stage.

(Emre, 130315)

Emre stated that as the primary purpose was to study the target structure (i.e. the passive voice), meaningful sentences were not required at that point. In fact, he claimed that after learning the correct structure, students could use it to make meaningful sentences (turn 20). To him, learning the structure efficiently in the classroom could precede using the structure meaningfully inside or outside the classroom. That is, he authenticated the given sentences within the pedagogical context of the language classroom. Indeed, this could be called 'learning process-internal authenticity' through which students 'find meaningfulness' of pedagogical resources for future use (Tudor, 2001, p.95).



Although it was not directly related to the lesson presented above, the teacher explicitly stressed her normative role as teaching the rules in our first interview session.

31	Erkan:	Do you think there is a difference between the language taught in the classroom and English used outside?
32	Asuman:	Of course there is. We try to teach academic language in the lesson, it's more formal. Don't we also teach Turkish like that? Do we teach everyday language in Turkish lessons? No. It's same for English. I don't teach them how to talk with people on the beach, I give them the rules.
33	Erkan:	Then how are they going to learn how to communicate with people on the beach?
34	Asuman:	It's easier when you know the rules, after you construct the basic knowledge... likewise, things we teach in the classroom will be beneficial for students, they will use them in the exams, it will be required at the university. It doesn't work with everyday language. They can learn it in some way later.

(Asuman, 121228)

Asuman stated that the main difference between the language taught in the classroom and the language used outside the classroom was that the former was more 'academic and more formal' (turn 32). Therefore, she claimed that her duty was to teach students the rules so that they could 'construct the basic knowledge' after which they could learn how to use the language effectively in daily communication (turn 34). She justified her view stating that students would need the academic English at the further stages in their education (turn 34).

As Breen (1985a, 1985b) emphasises, language classrooms are special social environments in which participants aim at not only learning or teaching the target language but also using that language in communication. I believe that teacher's confirmation in this classroom incident and both her and the students' views shared in the interviews, indeed, show this specific nature of language classrooms.

In conclusion, two views or approaches could be listed from the excerpts above in terms of authenticity. First, as Beyza mentioned, language samples used in the classroom could be both meaningful (e.g. making sense in everyday life) and relevant to the subject (e.g. focusing on the target structure). Second, as the teacher and Emre mentioned, language samples with focus on the target structure rather than on the (communicative) meaning could be utilised in order to achieve pedagogical goals at the beginning. These diverse reviews by the participants demonstrate that the authentication of the texts and the overall process in the classroom is indeed an individual process.

### **6.2.3. Towards ‘authentication’**

This theme focuses on the teacher’s and students’ comments and views on the texts used in the classroom through two samples (CLang#1 and CLang#2). When the participants were asked to evaluate these texts produced in/for the classroom and to compare them with their equivalents outside the classroom, they mainly addressed the following issues:

(1) Purpose – Texts with pedagogical goals only could be still validated in the classroom context as a legitimate and essential part of the learning process. However, texts pedagogical purposes of which were not overtly highlighted could be considered more ‘realistic’ and engaging.

(2) Content – Texts with interesting, relevant and ‘realistic’ content could be successfully authenticated in the classroom context.

(3) Presentation – Texts presented through well-contextualised tasks which were related to the daily life and which could make them sound more natural were more likely to be successfully authenticated by the participants in the classroom

context. While this interpretation could not be supported with the observations of the actual classroom practice, it was elicited during the interviews.

### **6.3. Discrepancy of interpretation**

As mentioned before, the process of authentication can be subjective. Moreover, this process becomes more salient when discrepancies of interpretation take place in the language classroom. Here ‘discrepancy of interpretation’ may involve potential or actual contradictions and/or quests for relevance or justification between the participants in the language learning environment. That is, it could refer to a lack of alignment between teacher’s intention and student’s interpretation, their search for validation or student’s attempt to make sense of the given texts or tasks and the intention or purpose of these.

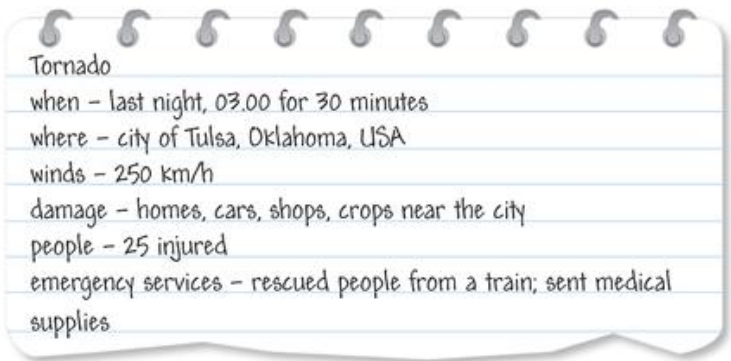
The initial codes that have been generated inductively and grouped under this theme can be listed as remedying, revising, justifying, rejecting, seeking for meaningfulness and establishing relevance. It should be noted that although these codes were developed inductively and organically from the data, they were also labelled in the light of van Lier’s description of the process of authentication (1996, p.127).

In order to exemplify this theme, I have selected two classroom incidents where a discrepancy between the students’ and the teacher’s or teacher trainee’s interpretation, acts or requests became visible in the lesson. The samples are labelled as Disc#1 and Disc#2, respectively. The first sample (Disc#1) described below is from a lesson delivered by one of the TTs and it is about her attempt to remedy the input for the sake of ‘authenticity’.

### 6.3.1. Disc#1

In the lesson, students studied the ‘vocabulary and listening’ section of Unit 8 and the goal of that particular module was stated as ‘I can talk about natural disasters’ in the textbook. The teacher trainee (TT4) first showed some videos about the natural disasters and she encouraged students to describe what happened in the videos. Then, students matched the disasters (e.g. avalanche, drought and earthquake) with the pictures given in the textbook. After this, the students listened to ten people on iTools and decided which natural disaster each person was talking about. Then, they read a short ‘news report’ about a hurricane and completed it with the correct words (for this text, see Section 6.2.1). Finally, TT4 asked students to write a short ‘news report’ in pairs.

**7** Work in small groups. Read the notes about a tornado and write a short news report like the one in exercise 6.



Tornado

- when – last night, 03.00 for 30 minutes
- where – city of Tulsa, Oklahoma, USA
- winds – 250 km/h
- damage – homes, cars, shops, crops near the city
- people – 25 injured
- emergency services – rescued people from a train; sent medical supplies

(Solutions Türkiye A2, p.66)

The original task in the textbook asked students to write a report using the given prompts and details on a pseudo-notepad. The text was about a tornado that happened in Oklahoma, USA. Considering the fact that this kind of disaster rarely happens in Turkey compared to other disasters such as an earthquake or forest fire, one can claim that the natural disaster selected here was not particularly designed for the local context. Presumably because of this reason, TT4 wanted students to use

different natural disasters in their reports. In this way, she also aimed at practising the new vocabulary items with students and encouraging them to produce more personalised outcomes.

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**TT:** You will prepare a news report, then you will introduce your report to the class.

**S1:** Are we writing about tornado?

**TT:** No, it's just an example. You can do whatever you want... disease, flood and so on.

[TR]

...

**TT:** OK, listen to me please, I want you to prepare a news report, just like the example, but you make your own sentences and you can choose any disaster here, disease, flood, earthquake, you can choose one of them and prepare a news report. You will mention 'where, when' Is it clear now?

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(Classroom observation, A.2#12)

During the activity, TT4 repeated the instructions and explicitly stated that the students were supposed to choose a disaster and write a report in their own words. While the students were working in pairs, TT4 walked around and helped them and sometimes repeated the instructions in Turkish. At the end, students read their reports aloud in pairs. It seemed that the instructions were not clearly understood by all students because most of them wrote very similar reports using the information given in the textbook. In our interview session, TT4 claimed that in spite of her efforts, most students followed the notes given in the textbook because they were not courageous enough to go beyond the written instructions (turn 109).

96	Erkan:	// There was a news report in the book and it asked students to write a similar one.
97	TT4:	Students usually misunderstand such activities; they do exactly the same with the given one. It limits the students, I find it wrong.
98	Erkan:	Then how should it be?

99	TT4:	Actually it isn't too dependent to the textbook. The teacher should be more authentic <sup>13</sup> . I mean it's Ok, s/he'll show the sample, give the example from the book but s/he'll also present an authentic activity related with the same topic. Fixed instructions in the book aren't very fruitful. For example, all of them used tornado in that activity, they didn't even change that.
100	TT3:	But it's written tornado in the book, I noticed that.
101	TT4:	But I didn't say 'tornado' to them.
102	TT3:	You didn't say that but they didn't hear you.
103	Erkan:	The sample in the book was about tornado... But you asked them to use different ones.
104	TT4:	Yes, I asked them to write about a different disaster, but students are so focused on the book that they can't do it.
109	TT4:	It wasn't possible that they didn't understand it. I said it again and again but students don't have that courage, they don't have the courage to do something different.
110	Erkan:	Or maybe they didn't hear it, or they didn't understand the instructions in English?
111	TT4:	In that activity, there were even some pairs that I gave the instructions in Turkish. They didn't change it either.

(TT, 130408)

In the interview, TT4 pointed out that when the textbook offered such restrictive tasks, teachers needed to become creative and more authentic, turning those activities into 'authentic' ones as well (turn 99). She also acknowledged that even though teachers could attempt to improve and authenticate the given tasks, students might tend to concentrate on the textbook instructions so much that their interpretation would be limited to the textbook (turn 104). However, I believe that the tension might result from an apparent lack of clarity in the instructions or students' tendencies to overlook the additional instructions given during the activities (similar situations noted in observations #4 and #12). These factors might have triggered a discrepancy between TT4's intention and students' interpretation of what they were supposed to do in this exercise as well.

<sup>13</sup> TT4 used the word 'özgün' in the interview, which can be translated into English as 'authentic, genuine or original.' I preferred to translate it as 'authentic' here.

For example, in the interview excerpt below, Beyza, who was aware of the fact that following the instructions given in the textbook prevented her from producing a genuine report, stated that she did not hear TT4's instructions and she followed the textbook (turn 56). Nevertheless, her awareness enabled her to propose modifying the task to make it 'better', or so to speak, 'more authentic' for her (turn 52).

49	Erkan:	How was that activity?
50	Beyza:	I think it was good... but it would've been better if we hadn't had the information, hadn't done it according to that.
51	Erkan:	You mean that information about how many people died, how many=
52	Beyza:	=Yes... because then everyone's report was the same, more or less similar to each other. But in the other way, you would think about it, you could add new things using your own ideas... I think it would have been better.
53	Erkan:	And the outcome would've been different?
54	Beyza:	Yes, everyone would've said something different, distinctive things. For example, one would've been fire, another would've been flood, then different things would've happened in flood, related to water... and others would've been different.
55	Erkan:	The teacher trainee gave you this opportunity though. I mean, when she was giving the instruction.
56	Beyza:	Did she? I didn't hear that. But the textbook wanted us to use the given information. It was about tornado.

(Beyza, 130401)

Beyza stated that the outcome would have been very different and more individual if students had not followed the given details in the textbook (turn 54). Although most students merely used the information given in the textbook and produced something very similar to the sample text, few students wrote their own news reports either about something they made up or about disasters that really happened in Turkey in the previous years with actual details about place, time and damage. Emre was one of the few students who wrote about something they made up.

47	Erkan:	How was that activity?
48	Emre:	I don't know. Most of us took the sentences from the report, changed two or three things, like it was written 'cars' there, they changed it and wrote 'house'.
49	Erkan:	There were even some students who didn't change anything. I guess only a few pairs changed the given

information		
50	Emre:	I wrote as I wanted. I had Ankara hit by a tsunami. So, it was good.

(Emre, 130405)

Emre and his pair wrote about an imaginary tsunami happening in Ankara, which is not even a coastal city. He recognised that most of the students slightly revised the sample in the textbook and they produced similar outcomes (turn 48). He also valued the text he produced as he wrote it in his own words, independently from the information provided in the textbook (turn 50).

In the end, the discrepancy that emerged during the classroom task described above provided us with noticeable traces of the process of authentication by the teacher trainee and students. The process involved each of them respectively pondering on and/or remedying the primary task. Firstly, although the task seemed conventionally authentic as it asked students to write a news report, it was not essentially ‘authentic’ because it limited students merely to using the given information in their writing. TT4, however, tried to authenticate the task by giving students the opportunity to choose any disasters and use their own words, thus to personalise it.

As most of the students followed the textbook instructions and produced similar outcomes, I could not claim that this was a successful authentication process especially in terms of the quality of outcomes in the genesis account of authenticity. However, students’ awareness of the limitations of the given instructions and their desire to produce genuine outcomes (even though most of them did not carry out that during the lesson) could be seen as significant indicators of the process of authentication (or attempts at authentication) by the students. In the following sample, on the other hand, a discrepancy emerged due to a student’s interpretation of



a vague situation given in the textbook, which was not in alignment with the teacher's interpretation. The sample below (Disc#2) is about this student's attempt to justify his interpretation, which resulted in a short and engaging conversation in the lesson.

### 6.3.2. Disc#2

The second set of excerpts relating to the theme of discrepancy is from a lesson delivered by the teacher. In this lesson, students practised the first conditional 'if-clauses' through textbook activities (they had been introduced to the first conditional in the previous lesson) and talked about superstitions in their local culture as well as in other cultures. The activities, including the reading text, mainly involved sentence completion on the theme of superstitions (e.g. *Ireland – If you put a pair of shoes on a table, it'll bring bad luck*). The following speaking exercise was presented as a part of the 'grammar' section of Unit 7 and the goal of this section was stated as 'I can talk about a future situation and its consequences' in the textbook.

**7 SPEAKING** Work in pairs. Ask and answer the questions.

What will you do if:

- the weather is fine at the weekend?
- you wake up in the middle of the night?
- you don't feel well on Monday morning?
- you forget your best friend's birthday?
- you can't do your homework?
- there's nothing good on TV this evening?

What will you do if the weather is fine at the weekend?

I'll go to the beach.

(Solutions Türkiye A2, p.61)

The aim of this exercise was to practise the first conditionals in the question form. Although students were supposed to ask and answer the given questions in pairs, the

teacher carried it out as a whole-class speaking activity. She asked the questions aloud and expected the students to answer them with their own sentences.

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<b>T:</b> What will you do if you wake up in the middle of the night?	<b>S1:</b> I will surf on the Internet. <b>S2:</b> I will try to sleep again. <b>S3:</b> I will drink water. <b>Ss:</b> [laughing]
<b>T:</b> Do you think that water helps you sleep?	<b>S4:</b> Most probably he thinks he woke up to drink water [TR]
<b>T:</b> I would understand if he said 'milk' [TR] I will drink milk because milk helps me sleep. Yes?	<b>S5:</b> I will go to the toilet.
<b>T:</b> I knew you would say such a thing... He will go to the toilet.	<b>S5:</b> Most probably you wake up to drink water or to go to the toilets [TR]
<b>T:</b> But it says, if you wake up...! you didn't understand that [TR]	<b>S5:</b> So if we wake up in the middle of the night, why do we wake up? To drink water or to go to the toilets [TR] <b>S2:</b> It means 'what will you do?' [TR]

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(Classroom observation, A.2#11)

After eliciting students' responses to the first situation in the activity, the teacher, Asuman, read aloud the second situation and students gave their own answers. Then, one of the students (S3) said *I will drink water*, which was found funny by his fellow classmates. Here, the teacher did not ignore or instantaneously reject his response, but she recognised it by questioning its relevance and asking for clarification. As a result it was possible to observe a discrepancy between the student's and teacher's interpretation of the task.

While questioning its relevance, Asuman attempted to revise the student's response and S4 tried to explain the intention of the primary text in Turkish. S5, on the other hand, gave a similar response and said he would go to the toilet. Moreover, he attempted to justify his response and the discrepancy between intention and

interpretations in this particular incident became clear. Like S4, S2 tried to explain the initial situation. It should be also noted that the students' explanations (S4 and S2) and justifications (S5) were uttered in Turkish. In the interview sessions, students showed that they were aware of the purpose of the activity and they found that brief but genuine conversation very interesting.

146	Erkan:	How was that?
147	Beyza:	I think it was also fun.
148	Erkan:	Some students even talked about drinking water or going to toilets.
149	Beyza:	Yes, they would do either one or the other.
150	Erkan:	And someone said they misunderstood the sentence.
151	Beyza:	Yes, they tried to explain why they would wake up in the middle of the night. It wasn't what the teacher asked for. But it was funny.
(Beyza, 130322)		
146	Erkan:	And how was the other activity? //
147	Emre:	I think it was good. We both did the activities there and the teacher turned it into a conversation, this made us more engaged. That was good. The teacher would've just said OK or ignored their answers, but she didn't.
(Emre, 130322)		

Beyza validated that her classmates' responses were not the expected answers in the task, thus resulting in a discrepancy. Moreover, her comment referred to the intention of the task and of the teacher together. She also stated that she had found the interaction that occurred during the activity humorous (turn 151). Emre, moreover, stated that they not only completed the task but also had an engaging conversation in the classroom during this incident (turn 147).

At first glance, it seems that authenticity might not be the right concept to describe what was going on in the classroom. However, the interaction here resonated with particular traits of the process of authentication. For instance, (1) although the task did not seem authentic as a speaking activity, the students' own and mostly genuine responses would be considered as authentic. Furthermore, (2) that the teacher did not

ignore students' responses but sought for remedying or clarification by creating a brief conversation here could be considered as an opportunity to turn the task into an authentic one through which an authentic, slightly humorous and engaging dialogue occurred. Finally, (3) S5's attempt to justify his own response, thus his interpretation despite the fact that the teacher and his classmates tried to explain the 'intention' of the text to him could be seen an example of his personal of authentication of the input.

The discrepancy described in this sample resulted in a spontaneous attempt to question the meaningfulness and relevance of the given instructions as well. As I observed in Classroom A.2, students usually liked spontaneous, in-class conversations like the brief one in the data excerpt above. Most students stated that they found such conversations very interesting and 'real-like.' The next theme of this chapter will address this issue in detail.

### **6.3.3. Towards 'authentication'**

This theme presented two specific samples from Classroom A.2 (Disc#1 and Disc#2) to illustrate the discrepancy of interpretation through which the process of authentication by the participants became 'visible' in the classroom context. Here, 'intention' refers to the aim or plan of the teacher, the task or the students; and 'interpretation' is about how the teacher or students interpreted and attempted to make sense of the intention of each other or of the given input.

In Disc#1, the process of authentication involved the teacher trainee's attempt to remedy the input, some students' positive response to this attempt and the others' neglect of this attempt. Disc#2, on the other hand, presented a process which was

started from an unexpected, spontaneous response by a student and continued with the teacher's recognition of this response and asking for clarification as well as the students' justification. In the second sample in particular, the dialogical nature of interaction that shaped the process of authentication was emphasised.

#### **6.4. Procedural vs. spontaneous outcomes in the classroom**

During the data analysis process, two main types of classroom outcomes emerged in Classroom A.2. On the one hand, there were 'procedural' outcomes, which resulted from the process of simply following the instructions and doing the given task in order to complete the given task. Although I had labelled the related codes and data as '*prepared-*' during the data analysis, later I preferred to use the word 'procedural' following the term 'procedural display' by Puro & Bloome (1987) and Bloome, Puro & Theodorou (1989). Procedural display is the 'cooperative display' by students and their teacher of 'a set of academic and interactional procedures that themselves count as the accomplishment of a lesson' (Bloome et al., 1989, p.272). The authors also state that a lesson can continue successfully when participants complete an 'interactional sequence that counts as a component of the lesson' (p.282). In this theme, procedural outcomes refer to outcomes of such classroom events. For example, students' dialogues or paragraphs produced by simply revising the samples provided by the teacher or the textbook in order to achieve the 'surface' goal of the task and move on the lesson can be considered as a 'procedural outcome' in the scope of this theme.

Spontaneous outcomes, on the other hand, refer to outcomes that emerge 'spontaneously' in the classroom. They can result from unplanned and natural interactional sequences by the teacher and students. That is, they usually involve

participants' genuine responses to each other or to the emerging conditions rather than their 'prepared' responses to a particular question or a given situation. I will present two samples in this theme and they are labelled as ProS#1 and ProS#2. While the second sample (ProS#2) aims to present a classroom incident in which spontaneous outcomes occurred, the first set of data extracts below (ProS#1) presents the procedural outcomes in a language lesson and participants' views on them.

#### 6.4.1. ProS#1

The extracts in this first sample (ProS#1) were from a lesson in which students read and listened to a dialogue about buying tickets for a movie. The dialogue was presented on the 'Everyday English' section of Unit 4, the goal of which was stated as 'I can buy tickets for a film or a concert' in the textbook. After listening to the dialogue and reading it aloud with their pairs, students studied speaking strategies on using phrases such as *'Pardon? Sorry, did you say...? Could you repeat that, please?'* Then, they listened to another dialogue and completed the information listed in the textbook (e.g. date, price and card number). Students listened to this dialogue again and they put the words in the correct order to make sentences from the dialogue. Finally, they were asked to prepare their own dialogues.

- 6** Work in pairs. Imagine you are booking tickets for a concert or a film. Prepare a dialogue including the information below. Use the expressions in the strategy box.

  - name of concert/date and time
  - number of tickets (adults or children?)
  - tickets available or sold out?/ticket price?
  - pay in cash (change?)/pay by credit card (credit card number, security code, expiry date?)
  - post the tickets? (name and address)

**7** **SPEAKING** Practise your dialogue. Try to memorise it. Then act out your dialogue to the class.

(Solutions Türkiye A2, p.36)

In this task, the students were supposed to include specific information in their dialogues such as date and time of the event and payment details and method. The task gave students the opportunity to decide those details so the students could choose either imaginary or actual information while they were preparing their dialogues. They were also asked to ‘memorise and act out’ their dialogues to the class, which presumably aimed at creating a genuine opportunity for students to share and comment on their outcomes with their fellow classmates.

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**T:** Imagine that we’re booking tickets for a concert, for a film or for a theatre. Prepare a dialogue with your partner, using the information given. And use the expressions in the strategy box. Do you understand? Is it clear?

**Ss:** Yes

**T:** [S1] stand up and explain what you are going to do.

**S1:** ? film?

**T:** Yes, [S2], what are you going to do?

**T:** We are going to prepare a dialogue...

**S2:** We will imagine...

**S2:** We are going to prepare a dialogue about we are going to a theatre or a cinema=

**T:** =imagine that you are going to the cinema, theatre, concert and so on... and you are going to prepare a dialogue with your partner. OK, you can study together.

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(Classroom observation, A.2#5)

After giving the instructions, the teacher asked a student to repeat these instructions to check if they were clear. However, S1 could not do that and S2 volunteered to repeat the instructions. While he was talking about what they were supposed to do in that activity, the teacher interrupted and provided the complete instructions again. She also stated that students could use the dialogue in the previous activity as an example. While students were preparing their dialogues, the teacher walked around and helped them.

Most of the students preferred to revise the dialogue given in the previous activity rather than to make a new dialogue. As I observed, they only changed specific information about the name and time of the event, number of tickets and ticket prices. At the end of the lesson, the teacher selected a pair and wanted them to ‘act out’ their dialogue. However, students simply read their dialogue aloud rather than memorising and acting out in front of their classmates. Therefore, it could be claimed that students merely created procedural outcomes, accomplishing the task without attempting to create something original. In fact, in our interview sessions, I found out that students thought such tasks could be unnecessary and artificial.

12	Emre:	[The dialogue] was unnecessary because we prepared it... and I think when it's prepared beforehand, it isn't very useful to improve your speaking... Rather, it would be writing, if you express yourself, then it would be useful for your writing. But while preparing such a dialogue, you wouldn't do speaking completely nor writing... I mean if it aims to improve speaking then it's more useful in a spontaneous way.
(Emre, 130301)		
94	Beyza:	[In that activity] you have to do it, there are certain things to do, you simply follow it.
95	Erkan:	Then you read your dialogues aloud in front of the whiteboard.
96	Beyza:	Yes, they were the same... you just look at the textbook, there are certain phrases there, you put them in your dialogue, like you write 'cinema' instead of 'picnic'.
97	Erkan:	Most of them were like that.
98	Beyza:	Yes, there was nothing more.
99	Erkan:	You mean everyone did very similar dialogues?
100	Beyza:	Yes! It was very artificial, just repetition.
(Beyza, 130311)		

Although they were not directly about this particular classroom incident, the interview excerpts above involved students' comments and thoughts about the similar classroom activities in which they solely revised or repeated the texts given in the textbook such as preparing a dialogue or writing notes and paragraphs (#2, #5, #8 and #12). In the interview, Emre stated that the exercise was ‘unnecessary’ and not very useful to improve speaking skills because it was arranged rather than



occurred spontaneously. To him, spontaneity could be an effective way to help students improve their speaking skills, apparently because it could, to an extent, correspond to the dialogues in daily communication (turn 12). Likewise, Beyza stated that the activity involved ‘following certain steps’ to accomplish the task (turn 94) and the outcomes were very similar to each other (turn 96). As a result, it was ‘very artificial, just repetition’ rather than something original or natural (turn 100). Thus, neither of the students seemed that they authenticated the task even if they completed it as they were expected. In fact, the teacher also confirmed this in one of the interviews.

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56	Asuman: Sometimes [students] like those dialogues, and sometimes they find it artificial and don't want to do it. Then you may try to do something different.
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(Asuman, 130408)

The teacher acknowledged that she could change the task when students found the task artificial. However, in the classroom incident above, she preferred to follow the task in the textbook. First, she wanted students to repeat the instructions to be sure that the task procedures were clearly understood and she gave them the opportunity to share their outcomes. Then students followed the instructions and worked together to produce their dialogues and complete the task. That is, both the teacher and students apparently engaged in the classroom activity and they followed the procedures provided by the textbook.

Although the students and the teacher followed the instructions step by step, the students did not seem to be engaged in the substantive goal of the task because they found it redundant and artificial. Moreover, they did not produce any original outcomes and the teacher did not attempt to modify the task even though she acknowledged that she could do such adaptations when the students, or sometimes

she herself, found it artificial or uninteresting (see also Asuman's interview excerpt in the following sample).

All in all, although such procedural activities can be authenticated in the classroom context as a valid part of the language lesson, the participants did not go beyond following the instructions and producing procedural outcomes in the lesson. In the following sample (ProS#2), however, the participants did not follow the instructions and developed a spontaneous conversation through their personal and genuine responses.

#### **6.4.2. ProS#2**

The lesson described in this second sample (ProS#2) was also delivered by the teacher. At the beginning of the lesson, the teacher explained different uses of adverbs and provided some examples. Then students described some electronic devices by using the adverbs listed in the textbook. Finally, the teacher asked students to look at the pictures on the textbook page. The following figure was one of those pictures.

**7 SPEAKING** Work in pairs. Ask and answer the questions in exercise 6.

How do you think the first invention works?

You attach the toilet paper holder to your head, and unroll the paper. Then you use it to ...

Which invention do you think is the most useful and why?

I think the ... is most useful because it's really ...

What is a fair price for the first invention, in your opinion?

I think a fair price is €15.



(Solutions Türkiye A2, p.53)

This was a speaking activity in which three pictures of different inventions were given and the students were asked to talk about each invention with their pairs (and to use adverbs they had practised). The pictures were a toilet paper holder, a big barbecue fork and noodle chopsticks with a fan. In order to facilitate students' dialogues, the task included some key words and questions such as '*Which invention do you think is the most useful and why?*' The teacher carried out this part as a whole-class activity. She wanted students to look at the picture in which a man was using the big barbecue fork that could be useful to cook several sausages at the same time. Then she asked '*What is he doing?*' and after eliciting some answers from students such as '*He is cooking sausages*', she said '*Do you like this invention?*'

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**T:** Do you like this invention?

**Ss:** No!

**S1:** I think it is useless in Turkey.

**T:** It's very useful for me. It's normally difficult to cook a lot of sausages. They're all cooked at the same time.

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**T:** Yes. We live in a house, not a house, an apartment but there is a big garden. Who lives in a house? In a house with a big garden? You? Where?

**T:** You don't need a big one... Do you cook sausages in the garden?

**T:** Like all Turkish men... Turkish men don't do anything. They always say 'I don't know' because they don't want to do anything... They are lazy. Women do everything! Do you agree?

**T:** Your mother cooks, your mother tidies up, she earns money... What does your father do? He only comes home and watches TV in pyjamas.

**T:** What does he do? What does your father do?

**T:** Everybody's father earns money. Your mother not only earns money but also does housework. What about your father?

**T:** What about your mother?

**T:** Yes, she cooks, tidies up, cleans the house, takes the responsibility of you and comes to school to talk about your reports. I don't know your fathers but I have met most of your mothers. Only S1's father comes... He is different. Maybe his mother is lazy. What about your mother?

**T:** He? SHE!

**T:** She comes home... when she comes home...

**T:** Because she became 'the man' of the house, you keep saying 'he' [TR]

**T:** It is very important!

**T:** As if it is a big thing [TR]

**S2:** We don't have a garden.

**S1:** Have you got? Do you have a garden?

**S3:** Yes but it's not very big garden.

**S3:** No, because my father doesn't know... barbecue...

**Ss:** Yes! [mostly girls]

**Ss:** [laughing]

**S4:** My father earns money.

**S5:** He only works.

**S5:** My mother cooks, irons...

**S1:** Lots of things [TR]

**S1:** My mother is very busy. Because he works...

**S1:** She works and when he... She comes home, she cooks, she washes the dishes and does ironing...

**S1:** But my father helps her... compared to their fathers [TR]

**S2:** How do you know that? [TR] My father repairs something...

**S1:** My father does salad well.

**S2:** Prepares!

**S6:** My father boils egg.

**S1:** Hocam! My father lived alone in

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	university years. So he do...
<b>T:</b> I see! He used to live alone so... he can do everything. OK your father is hardworking	<b>S1:</b> Yes.
<b>T:</b> Congratulations.	<b>S7:</b> My father cooks sometimes. He does barbecue, repairs something and he does garden work.
<b>T:</b> Well done. But I don't know your father I think... I know your mother.	<b>S7:</b> My father will come to school.
<b>T:</b> Anyway... This invention is good for me. If I cook using this invention, all the family members eat at the same time. What about the last one?	

(Classroom observation, A.2#8)

At the very beginning, the disagreement occurred between the teacher and students about the usefulness of the invention. Then S1 and S2 raised an issue that a barbecue fork would be useless if one did not have an appropriate place (i.e. garden). Validating this issue, the teacher stated that she had a garden and she asked who else in the classroom had a garden. Then, S3 stated that although they had a garden they did not do barbecue because his father did not know how to do it. After the teacher's comment on Turkish men, they started to talk about men's and women's roles in household in Turkey and students shared examples about their parents. Although it was unrelated to the topic in the task, the talk lasted almost eight minutes. As seen in the excerpt above, students brought up sub-topics in the conversation but it was the teacher who validated them and placed them at the centre of the conversation.

School A 15.03.2013	I was transcribing the observation notes after today's lesson (#10) and I saw my note about teacher's tendency to hold the floor. The teacher usually held the floor and posed different questions to the students. When they were expected to answer, the students shared their opinions and thoughts but the format and flow were usually controlled by the teacher. That made me realise that the teacher's tendency to hold the floor during speaking activities occurred several times in different observation notes (#1, #6 and #8) – regardless of the fact that it was a dialogue-preparing exercise (textbook) or spontaneous talk in the class.
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(Field notes)

Although the conversation occurred spontaneously and the students seemed to contribute to it personally, the teacher had a relatively dominating role in it. She recognised the subtopics, made comments on students' utterances, posed questions and at the end finished the talk and moved to the next picture. In fact, the teacher's tendency to 'conduct' the classroom talk was seen in other observation notes as well, which might indicate her normative role in the classroom. Despite this tendency, it seemed that students were able to become involved in and enjoy this 'spontaneous' talk in the classroom.

78	Beyza:	I think almost everyone spoke in that activity
79	Erkan:	But it wasn't much related to the topic, does it matter to you?
80	Beyza:	It doesn't. I think it becomes more interesting. For example, there are some questions in the beginning, like a warm-up question before the topic, we can get bored with those questions... but when there are options, let's say you have two options and everyone supports either one of them and defend it, someone says something, then you will make your argument... and you can't use Turkish so you work hard to express yourself in English.
93	Erkan:	And how was that [activity]?
94	Beyza:	I think it was very good. Because it's something you want to do, and volunteers can talk in that activity, share and defend their own thoughts... But in the other one, you have to do it, there are certain things to do, you simply follow it.
100	Beyza:	[it] was all about your own ideas, your own sentences, your words.

(Beyza, 130311)

Beyza claimed that she would prefer prompts for discussion as a warm-up activity before a topic rather than boring warm-up questions that did not promote students' engagement (turn 80). As for the conversation presented above, Beyza stated that it was not related with the textbook task; however, students could share their 'own sentences' in their 'own words' during that conversation because it was engaging, voluntary and individual (turns 94 and 100). It could be claimed that a relatively irrelevant and unexpected conversation spontaneously co-constructed by a number of

students and the teacher could be successfully authenticated by her. Furthermore, Emre mentioned the dialogic nature of such spontaneous conversations and claimed that they could be useful in the language lessons.

22	Emre:	I find [spontaneous talk] more beneficial.
23	Erkan:	Why?
24	Emre:	Because it happens instantaneously. When you go there, you talk spontaneously, when you need to ask something there, you don't think much about what to say and how to say it, I mean while making sentences... I mean, you make the sentence in your head to some extent but then you have to talk spontaneously, make sentences instantaneously. So I think it was useful in the class.
25	Erkan:	What do you mean by you talk like that 'there'?
26	Emre:	In daily life... For example, when you go to England, to a cafe, you may think about how to say 'can I have coffee, please' but when you ask for a direction or something... it happens spontaneously so you simultaneously make and say your sentences.

(Emre, 130301)

Emre stated that he found such spontaneous conversations in the lessons beneficial and realistic in a similar way that usually happened in daily communication (turn 24). That is, this kind of spontaneous dialogues are constructed by participants in communicative events where utterances are influenced by the previous utterances and influence the following ones. He even gave examples about ordering coffee and asking for directions to support his claim (turn 26). In this sense, his comments addressed the correspondence account of authenticity. Moreover, in another interview session, Emre had also stated that students could make their own sentences in those conversations and it would become '*a more engaging and more effective way of learning*' (Emre, 121207). According to the teacher as well, those conversations could be 'very beneficial' for students' language practices.

102	Asuman:	If it goes well, I continue it so that they can speak.
103	Erkan:	What do you think about that? Like its benefits or=
104	Asuman:	=I consider that very beneficial, at least for their practice. Also, it increases their interest in and liking for the lesson, at least they don't get bored... They don't say 'it's English lesson again, we'll get bored' and so on.

110	Asuman:	When I feel that students get bored or lose their attention, I just bring up a new topic.
111	Erkan:	I think students also like that, for example while you're doing some fill-in-the blank activities or following the textbook, you suddenly ask a spontaneous question or something unexpected happens... and everyone raise their heads and pay attention.
112	Asuman:	Yes, I mean I also get bored with doing the same thing all the time. Actually, it's not just the students, but I also get bored with doing the same thing... I prefer some different things, getting closer with each other and sharing our stories, sentences with each other.
113	Erkan:	And they usually share their stories.
114	Asuman:	Yes, I give them that freedom... I don't limit them too much, I don't think there should be a fixed 'teacher' format.

(Asuman, 130408)

In Classroom A.2, similar spontaneous conversations occurred during a number of my classroom observations on different topics such as hunting (#1), movie awards (#3) and table manners (#10). In all cases, the students and the teacher shared anecdotes or personal comments about the topic. Asuman stated that she preferred to maintain such conversations as long as they went well, by which she might imply 'as long as students got engaged in the conversations' (turn 102). To her, these conversations in the classroom could help students practise their language skills and make the lesson more attractive (turns 104 and 110). Furthermore, it could provide both students and the teacher with the opportunity to share their stories with each other (turn 112). She also believed that she could go beyond 'a fixed' description of a classical teacher by not limiting students to textbook content only (turn 114). As a result, they could create a classroom context where they had more communicative and personal interaction with each other rather than merely having procedural outcomes for the sake of getting through the lesson.

All in all, the students were able to engage in the conversation and share their own examples from their daily lives, which could be seen as the process of authentication.



Moreover, the teacher acknowledged that she wanted to involve the spontaneity in the lesson not only for students' sake but also for her own sake, and by doing this she considered herself out of the 'fixed teacher format.' In this sense, unlike the first sample (ProS#1), this second sample illustrates a strong connection between the teachers' and students' engagement in the classroom and their personal contribution. As seen in Emre's interview excerpt, students might also find this kind of conversation similar to everyday language use in terms of spontaneity and dialogic nature. Furthermore, they found spontaneous conversations beneficial and engaging in terms of improving speaking skills. Therefore, the process of authentication here includes connecting the pedagogical purposes and the communicative use of language.

#### **6.4.3. Towards 'authentication'**

Through the two samples presented in this theme (ProS#1 and ProS#2), I aimed to demonstrate the relationships between different dimensions of authenticity in the classroom context. The interpretation and contextualisation of the data samples were carried out through presentations of procedural and spontaneous outcomes in the classroom.

As seen in ProS#1, procedural outcomes were usually found 'unnecessary, artificial, repetitious and not genuine' by the participants. It may be claimed that procedural outcomes usually appeared to be validated in terms of relevance but not authenticated in terms of effectiveness or meaningfulness in the language learning experience. Spontaneous outcomes, however, were usually regarded as 'interesting, beneficial, real-like, engaging and effective' by the participants in the classroom. As ProS#2 illustrated, they could be characterised as authentic and meaningful in the

process of language learning, particularly through building strong connections between different dimensions of authenticity.

## 6.5. Summary

In this chapter, I presented three themes to discuss the process of authentication by the students and the teacher. The presentation above aimed to ‘spotlight’ the dynamic and multi-dimensional nature of authenticity revealed through specific classroom samples.

Themes	Samples	
Comparing everyday language vs. language used in the classroom	News report in the textbook	CLang#1
	An example that ‘at least shows the structure’	CLang#2
Discrepancy of interpretation	Teacher trainee’s attempt to remedy the input for the sake of ‘authenticity’	Disc#1
	Student’s attempt to justify his interpretation	Disc#2
Procedural vs. spontaneous outcomes in the classroom	Procedural outcomes	ProS#1
	Spontaneous conversations in the classroom	ProS#2

Table 6.1. Themes – Classroom A.2

In the first theme (Section 6.2), I presented the teacher’s, TT’ and students’ views and comments on the texts used in and outside the classroom. In the first sample, the participants shared their comparisons between a news report in the textbook and its possible counterparts in everyday life. In the second sample, they commented on language samples produced in the lesson in order to practise a specific grammar point. In the interviews, the participants pointed out particular issues such as purpose, content and presentations of the texts used in the classroom, which indicated that they considered various conditions while they were engaging with these texts in order to bestow authenticity upon them in the classroom context.

The second theme (Section 6.3) addressed ‘discrepancy’ in the lessons through which the process of authentication by the teacher and students became rather salient. In the first sample, there was a discrepancy between the teacher trainee’s intention of remedying the textbook task and the students’ interpretations and actions. The second sample was about a student’s interpretation of the given situation in the task and his unexpected response that resulted in a short but interesting dialogue between the teacher and the student. Both samples illustrated the participants’ attempts at authentication, which became salient when a discrepancy emerged between their interpretations of the texts or tasks used in the lesson. Finally, the third theme (Section 6.4) addressed procedural outcomes in the language classroom and spontaneous conversations in the lesson. While the former was considered as ineffective and artificial but somewhat relevant in the language learning, the later was regarded as effective, meaningful and interesting by the students. This theme highlighted that ‘authenticity’ was (co)constructed by the participants through their engagement with and validation of the texts. The interview extracts also demonstrated that the context played a special role in this process.

## **CHAPTER 7**

# **FINDINGS (B.1)**

### **7.0. Introduction**

While Chapters 5 and 6 include the findings from School A, Chapters 7 and 8 include the findings from School B. In this chapter, the specific details about Classroom B.1 and the findings from this unit of analysis (i.e. mini-case) will be presented. After presenting the background information about the research participants and overall classroom environment, I will address the procedures of the data collection and analysis. Then, I will present three themes that emerged in Classroom B.1. A summary of the findings will be presented at the end.

### **7.1. Background**

Background information related to Classroom B.1 includes the details about research participants, classroom context and data collection process. As data analysis procedures have been already explained in detail in Chapter 4, the related section in this chapter refers to some examples to illustrate the analysis process (Appendix 7.1) and involves the themes developed from Classroom B.1.

#### **7.1.1. Participants**

Participants from Classroom B.1 were the language teacher, two teacher trainees and two students. Sevgi, a pseudonym used for the language teacher, was in her 50s and she had nearly 30 years of teaching experience. She had worked in different state schools before she was assigned as a language teacher to School B. During some of

my classroom observations there were also four teacher trainees (TT) in the classroom. They prepared and taught some of the lessons (e.g. classroom observations #4, #5, #11 and #12<sup>14</sup>). As I observed their lessons and issues about their lessons were mentioned during the interviews with students, I included two of the teacher trainees (TT5 and TT6) as research participants. I conducted an audio-recorded interview session with one of them at the end of the second phase of data collection process.

There were 27 students in the classroom (17 girls and 10 boys). Students were 14-15 years old and most of them had started studying English at the 4<sup>th</sup> grade (when they were 9-10 years old). As a result of the placement test for the 9<sup>th</sup> grades conducted at the beginning of the academic year, Classroom B.1 was comprised of students with A1 proficiency level (according to CEFR). I conducted interviews with two students from this classroom. In this study, the pseudonyms Nilay and Yakup were used for these two students. Both of them were 15 years old and had graduated from state schools in Ankara before they started the 9<sup>th</sup> grade at this school. They could be easily observed from the place where I sat in the classroom.

### **7.1.2. Classroom context**



Picture 7.1 Classroom B.1

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<sup>14</sup> In this chapter, the numbers with hash in parenthesis refer to relevant classroom observation notes.

Unlike the classrooms in School A, each pair of students was sharing a two-student desk in Classroom B.1. There were some extra desks in the classroom so some of the students were sitting individually in some lessons rather than sharing a desk with a classmate. There were four rows of desks in the classroom and the teacher's desk was placed in the front, on the window side. There was a smart-board on the front wall but it was not activated because of some technical issues. As a result, they used the green and white boards on the wall and the projector attached to the ceiling. The teacher always brought her own laptop to use iTools, special software for the textbook *Solutions* (OUP) in order to deliver the lessons.

windows			board				door	
	<b>T</b>							
	G	<b>G</b>	G	G	G	G		
	G	G	G	G	G	G		
	B	B	G	G	G		<b>TT</b>	
	B	B	G	B	<b>B</b>	B	<b>TT</b>	
	B	G	<b>TT</b>	<b>TT</b>	B	B	<b>X</b>	

Figure 7.1. Physical layout of Classroom B.1

Before each classroom observation, I drew a rough sketch of seating arrangements on my notebook. Figure 7.1 shows the general layout of Classroom B.1; however, it should be noted that students sometimes changed their places before lessons. In the figure, the letter '*B*' is used to show male students and '*G*' is used to show female students. '*TT*' shows where the teacher trainees usually sat and '*X*' shows where I often sat during the classroom observations. The letters '**G**' and '**B**' in bold show two student interviewees selected in this classroom.

As the main supplementary materials in the classroom, *Solutions Türkiye A1* (OUP) was used by the teacher. In fact, she delivered almost all of her lessons following the textbook content and asked the teacher trainees to follow the same content as well.

### **7.1.3. Data collection**

I observed Classroom B.1 between 05.12.2012 and 02.01.2013 (first phase) and between 20.02.2013 and 10.04.2013 (second phase). In total, I conducted thirteen classroom observations, eleven of which were audio-recorded. I observed two sequential English lessons of the classroom on Wednesday afternoons every week (in total, 26 lessons were observed). I always sat at the back of the classroom during my observations and took my notes on my notebook in English.

Semi-structured interviews were also conducted with the participants. The interviews were carried out in the school building and were audio-recorded with the permissions of the participants. Almost all of the interviews with students were conducted during the lunch breaks, which resulted in relatively short interview sessions. The details of interviews (e.g. numbers, duration and place) can be seen in Chapter 4.

### **7.1.4. Data analysis and findings**

In total there were around 310 codes developed inductively. It is worth reminding the reader that the data analysis includes the *contextual coding* process. That is, emerging codes were developed and grouped around certain classroom incidents (e.g. a classroom task, a conversation between students and their teacher) as well as their relevance to each other. A specific illustration of this process from Classroom B.1 can be found in Appendix 7.1.

The three themes selected to be presented and discussed in this chapter are: Addressing international and local cultures in the lesson (Section 7.2), relating the topic to students' daily lives (Section 7.3) and creating imaginary contexts in the classroom (Section 7.4). Each theme involves two separate sets of data samples addressing the related categories in the context of distinctive classroom incidents. Moreover, each set of samples was coded to enable easy access for future reference. As mentioned in Chapter 4, the data presentation here is comprised of extracts from the textbook, field journal and interviews in order to provide triangulation of data methods and a rich contextualisation.

## **7.2. Addressing international and local cultures in the language classroom**

During both the initial coding and focused coding processes, specific references to cultural elements were noted in Classroom B.1. These cultural references, then, were grouped under two headings as 'international cultures' and 'local cultures'. This theme was developed by the combination of these two categories.

In this theme, 'international cultures' encompasses values, behaviours, customs and artefacts of communities/societies outside the local, national context. Due to the content of the textbook and nature of language teaching in this particular context, 'international cultures' mainly involves cultural elements related to the target language users (e.g. North American or British culture). Especially in the interviews, this phenomenon emerged through terms such as 'foreign culture', 'other culture' or 'their culture'. Local culture(s), on the other hand, refers to students' local culture and context, and it was often mentioned as 'home culture', 'regional culture' or 'Turkish culture'. Although the term 'local culture' may address varied levels of culture; these levels often exist within a particular national context. In the interviews,



the participants usually called local cultures as ‘familiar’ while they considered foreign culture as ‘new and unfamiliar’.

It is worth noting that in Classroom B.1 (and in Classroom B.2 as well), ‘*Solutions Türkiye A1*’ (OUP) was selected as a supplementary resource; however, it was being used as the main textbook since the language teachers in School B did not find the textbook provided by the Ministry sufficient and well-designed (Field notes, 121205). In the interviews, the teacher and students stated that they had expected some content related to Turkey and local contexts in the textbook as it was labelled ‘Türkiye’ in the title (e.g. Nilay, 121211; Yakup, 121218). Since the textbook was the primary material used in the classroom and almost all of the lessons I observed were delivered in a textbook-oriented way, I will start this theme by addressing the title of the textbook.

17	Erkan:	// Do you think saying ‘Türkiye’ in the title makes a difference?
18	Sevgi:	No, on the contrary... It used to be just Solutions, and now it’s Solutions Türkiye. Oxford did something like that. Solutions Türkiye... We used to use Pacesetter Türkiye as well. Then, [Pacesetter] used to include some contents related to Turkish culture or something Turkish students could understand and talk about in the lesson; but now it’s the opposite, there is nothing like that. For example, there is a reading text on Sumo! Instead of that it would be something about our [Turkish] wrestling. [Sumo] isn’t very appealing to Turkish students, I think.

(Sevgi, 121220)

Commenting on the title, the teacher, Sevgi, claimed that there was no difference between the current ‘Türkiye’ edition and the previous editions of this book. According to her, the textbook could have included texts related to Turkish culture as this would attract students’ attention and interest more efficiently (turn 18). Here, I could claim that contents related to local context was regarded relatively more authentic in the language lesson by the teacher. Interestingly, however, her initial

comment on this issue indicated the students' possible preferences and responses rather than her own personal and teaching preference in mind (her later comment on this issue will be presented below). She also stated that the publisher might prefer to use the word 'Türkiye' on the cover to claim that the textbook was updated and localised in terms of the design. However, she considered this merely something connected with the publisher's 'commercial' purposes.

While I was scanning the textbook, I found only few texts related to the local culture (e.g. Turkish TV show 'Al Yazmalım'; a Turkish teenager in a dialogue). However, these texts usually were not in the 'culture' sections. The 'culture' sections involved topics such as the British royal family, Halloween, a historical event about an African-American activist in the USA and so on. The content related to local culture was apparently omitted in the 'culture' sections of the textbook. This could be seen as the downside of the textbook especially with regard to the current discussion in the ELT literature that emphasises localisation of materials/inputs in the language classroom to make them more context-specific and meaningful for learners (Trabelsi, 2011; 2014). However, this may also provide a language teacher with the opportunity to authenticate such inputs according to both his/her approach and students' interests and build explicit connections between cultural elements from international and local contexts.

To illustrate this theme, I will present two samples below, which are labelled as Cult#1 and Cult#2, respectively. The first one is about a lesson on Halloween, a popular festival especially in the USA, and participants' views on that lesson. Although it partially addresses an activity about special occasions in local culture,

participants' opinions about involving local culture in the language lesson in general will be addressed in the second sample through specific interview extracts.

### **7.2.1. Cult#1**

This first sample (Cult#1) includes data excerpts related to a lesson in which a reading text called 'Halloween' in the textbook was introduced by one of the teacher trainees (TT5). The teacher, Sevgi, and the other TTs were also observing the lesson. Here, Halloween seemed an interesting topic as it represented (1) an event from international culture, particularly in North America, (2) a festival from popular culture, which students could be familiar with because of globalisation and accessibility in today's world, and (3) a classroom topic, thus a pedagogical input to introduce specific vocabulary items and cultural references. The text was in the 'Culture' section of Unit 4, the goal of which was stated as 'I can understand information about a popular festival' in the textbook. First, the students were asked to describe the picture given next to the reading text. There were four young people in the picture wearing colourful party clothes and the students described what these people were wearing (the previous section in the textbook was on 'describing clothes' through vocabulary, listening and speaking exercises). Then, TT5 wanted students to read the text silently and find out which festivals were mentioned in the text. As the instructions were given in English, some students did not understand the purpose of this first reading. Then, TT5 with other teacher trainees repeated the instructions again and checked if students were reading the text. Here, I observed that some students were 'chatting' about 'Halloween' with their classmates. These short talks, which could be framed as 'underlife' following Goffman's term (1961) were not recognised by TT5. Here, 'underlife' refers to the talk emerging 'under' the official/recognised lesson talk, thus the interaction that usually develops alongside

the level of teacher-student interaction in the classroom (Rymes, 2009). Recognising this ‘underlife’ and pulling it to the main flow of the lesson might have made students’ authentication attempts more visible and promote authenticity as well as autonomy in the language classroom. However, as seen below, this was not recognised by TT5. After students read the text and answered the first question, TT5 asked students to read the text again and answer the other questions given in the textbook.

- 3 Read the text again. Answer the questions.**

  - 1 What is the theme of Halloween parties in the USA?
  - 2 What do children ask for when they go trick or treating?
  - 3 What do children often make?
  - 4 Why are apples often part of the games at Halloween?
  - 5 Which people can see and talk to spirits, according to one belief?
  - 6 What do Mexican families do on the Day of the Dead?

*(Solutions Türkiye A1, p.36)*

The authors and publisher of the textbook provided a list of sources with copyright permissions to be reproduced as extracts or adaptations in the acknowledgement part of the textbook. However that part included the sources only for songs and photographs used in the textbook and no acknowledgment was listed for the reading texts. Therefore, presumably the text on ‘Halloween’ was specially written for the textbook by the authors. Although I could not present the actual reading text here because of the copyright issues, the questions in the extract above could indicate the overall content of the text. As seen in the questions, the text included information about theme of Halloween parties, activities and practices in these parties and possible beliefs behind this popular festival. When giving the answers, the students usually read the full sentences from the text aloud rather than giving answers in their

own words. I was not sure if all of the students heard the answers because the class was a bit noisy at that moment.

Then TT5 showed some pictures taken from the Internet and wanted students to guess what they were. The pictures were selected and prepared by TT5 in order to visualise the highlighted words in the texts (e.g. graveyard, candles etc.). Although some students tried to share their guesses about the pictures in English, most students said the Turkish equivalents of the words and they usually made comments in Turkish. After this, the students matched the highlighted words with their meanings given in the textbook. It was often the same students who ‘shouted’ the answers in this activity. Finally, TT5 asked students to work in pairs and discuss the given questions in the speaking part.

- 5 SPEAKING** Work in pairs. Discuss the questions.

  - 1 Is Halloween a popular festival in your country? Do you celebrate it?
  - 2 Are there any special festivals in your region? When are they? What do people do to celebrate them?

*(Solutions Türkiye A1, p.36)*

In this speaking exercise, students were supposed to ‘discuss’ the questions with their classmates. The first question was about celebrating ‘Halloween’ in Turkey and the second question was about other festivals in the local context. After giving students five minutes for preparation, TT5 asked one pair to ask and answer the questions aloud.

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**TT:** Who wants to start first? Yes?

**S1:** Is Halloween a popular festival in your country?

**S2:** No it isn't. Halloween isn't a popular festival in your... my country.

**TT:** Why?

**S2:** Why? Because...

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**TT:** Maybe because of culture, we can say?

**S2:** OK, yes, yes...

**S1:** Are there any special festivals in your region?

**S2:** Yes there are.

**S1:** When are they?

**TT:** What are they?

**S2:** They are Ramazan...

**Ss:** Ramazan? Ramadan?

**TT:** You can say 'Ramadan'

**S2:** Ramazan... OK, Ramadan.

**TT:** Thank you. Yes?

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(Classroom observation, **B.1#4**)

After TT5 gave the floor to the students to share their 'discussion', S1 read the question in the textbook aloud and S2 gave his answers. As S2 was following the exact sentence from the textbook, he used the wrong pronoun in his answer but corrected himself quickly (i.e. '*...in your... my country*'). Then TT5 asked why Halloween was not considered as a popular festival in Turkey and provided the answer for her own question without giving a chance to S2. Here, her reference to 'culture' was approved by the student. TT5 also interrupted S1's question about the local festivals and asked the students to name the special events in the local culture. 'Ramazan', a festival celebrated in most Muslim communities after a month of fasting, was given as an example by S2. S2's Turkish word choice was found funny by his classmates. After this, another pair shared their dialogue and TT5 finished this section continuing with the grammar section. Although the software of the textbook provided a short video (i.e. culture clip) on 'Bonfire Night' in England and some questions about this video as an additional activity, TT5 did not show the video in the lesson because they did not have enough time and probably because she found it unrelated to the main topic in the lesson.

In the interview sessions with the teacher and students, we talked about the topic and activities in this lesson (e.g. Halloween and local festivals). An extract from the interview with the teacher, Sevgi, is given below.

21	Erkan:	For example, there was a topic about Halloween...
22	Sevgi:	Yes, as if Halloween was a big deal <sup>15</sup> for us.
23	Erkan:	You had mentioned Turkish culture before, should the textbook also include it? Or to what extent should they be introduced in the language lesson?
24	Sevgi:	If there was a special occasion celebrated in Turkey rather than Halloween in the textbook, it would draw students' attention more, I guess. I mean they could contribute more to the lesson in terms of speaking. Because it's more familiar. When it's about Halloween, most of the students don't even know what it means and it isn't easy for us to explain it, to be frankly, I skip that. Of course they should learn it, but they should also learn something about our [Turkish] culture... the book can also give a paragraph about one of our special occasions so that students can understand what special occasion means better.

(Sevgi, 121220)

Sevgi claimed that 'Halloween' as a cultural topic in the textbook was not a very important one for the teacher and students because it was not related to the local context (turn 22). Then acknowledging that students should learn topics related to international cultures such as Halloween, she claimed that a topic related to local context would attract students' attention more. To her, local culture could be utilised to promote students' contribution and engagement particularly in speaking activities as students would be already familiar with it and have more things to talk about (turn 24). She also stated that she usually preferred not to deal with a topic like Halloween in detail in the lessons as it could be difficult for teachers to explain it as well. This is presumably because Halloween is not celebrated in Turkey and teacher's knowledge about it is often limited to information provided by resources such as the Internet or mostly American movies. Apparently, Sevgi would prefer concentrating on the local

<sup>15</sup> Here, 'a big deal' could be also translated as 'an important issue' or 'a crucial thing' into English.

culture/context as a strategy for authentication in the classroom. She also claimed that this would also receive positive responses by the students.

In the interview session, Nilay, one of the student participants, stated that a special occasion celebrated by ‘others’ would seem more appealing than an occasion celebrated in Turkey (turn 12).

11	Erkan:	[on a reading text on Halloween] Would you prefer something we celebrate in Turkey or would it be more interesting with something that we don't celebrate here but that is celebrated in other cultures?
12	Nilay:	Hmm... Something celebrated by others, in other cultures seems more interesting.
13	Erkan:	Like Halloween then?
14	Nilay:	Not very interesting but... it's interesting, wearing different dresses or something, it's an interesting event and yes it's celebrated by others.
15	Erkan:	And it isn't celebrated here in Turkey.
16	Nilay:	No... It's better that it isn't celebrated... it's a bit related to culture I assume?
17	Erkan:	Maybe because it isn't a part of our culture=
18	Nilay:	=yes, yes, it isn't something relevant to us <sup>16</sup> .

(Nilay, 130102)

Nilay expressed that Halloween as a special occasion was not a part of the local culture in Turkey (turn 18). To her, the fact that Halloween was a part of another culture and that it was not celebrated in Turkey could make the topic somewhat more interesting to the students (turns 12 and 16). Therefore, it can be claimed that a topic on different cultures such as Halloween than a topic on local and familiar context could be seen more appealing to Nilay. However, she indicated that the lesson with a reading text on Halloween could have been presented in a different way.

23	Erkan:	What about the way you studied the text in the lesson? What do you think about it?
24	Nilay:	It could've been more exciting... or... we don't know anything about that topic, I mean about Halloween, so they could've explained it first and then asked us to read the text or we could've translated it into Turkish.

<sup>16</sup> Here, the word ‘us’ refers to ‘our culture’, thus local, Turkish culture/context.



26	Nilay:	We could've done something more informative, we didn't do anything; we read it as if it were an ordinary text and then continued.
33	Erkan:	So how would you prepare that lesson if you were the teacher?
34	Nilay:	First, I would bring some visuals related to that.
35	Erkan:	Related to Halloween?
36	Nilay:	Yes, because there weren't many visuals in the textbook... there were only one picture.
37	Erkan:	A picture of four dressed people.
38	Nilay:	I would've brought related visuals, then first I would've explained it like what it was and so on... They could've also explained it in English... After that, we could've read the text aloud and made comments on it.

(Nilay, 130102)

Nilay seemed quite interested in the topic as it was about an event from unfamiliar culture and she stressed that the lesson could have been 'more exciting', if the topic had been explained in a more detailed way (presumably through different visuals and materials since the textbook did not provide enough visuals on the topic). To her, this would have been more effective than simply asking students to read the text and answer the questions (turns 24, 34 and 36). She also mentioned that they could have read it aloud and discussed it in the classroom (turn 38) or translated the text in Turkish to understand it well (turn 24). In fact, the translation issue in Classroom B.1 is a relatively interesting case and can be discussed in detail under a separate theme. She also implied that the text on Halloween was not an ordinary text, thus it could have been presented in a different way. However, the classroom tasks described above seemed to hinder the potential of the text. Here, it can be claimed that while the text was regarded as an appealing text to be authenticated by the students (even though it was a 'textbook' text), its presentation and the related tasks were not successfully authenticated through participants' personal and deeper engagement. Yakup also stated that he found the topic interesting (turn 10). However, he did not think the same for the classroom activity.

9	Erkan:	Did you find it interesting? I'm asking because we don't celebrate Halloween in Turkey at all.
10	Yakup:	Yes, it was interesting.
11	Erkan:	What was the interesting part for you?
12	Yakup:	I really wondered the thing, I mean Halloween. It wasn't very informative but at least it gave some information about what they were doing, how they were celebrating. It was nice and interesting
13	Erkan:	And what do you think about the way it was delivered in the lesson? Was it also interesting to you?
14	Yakup:	Not much.
15	Erkan:	Why not?
16	Yakup:	It could've been different.
17	Erkan:	Like what?
18	Yakup:	I mean there must be a lot of videos on the Internet, [TTs] could've downloaded or played one of them in the lesson or there must have been a video on iTools related to this topic, it would've been better if they had played it.

(Yakup, 130102)

Like Nilay did, Yakup found the text about Halloween interesting (turn 12). As for how the topic was introduced in the classroom, Yakup stated that it was not informative and as 'interesting' as the topic itself and that it could have been delivered differently (turns 14 and 16). He pointed out that TT5 could have prepared a lesson with a video either from the Internet or iTools to make it more attractive and informative for students (turn 18). In fact, as mentioned above, iTools provided a video related to the topic; however, it was about 'Bonfire Night' in England rather than Halloween in the USA, and TT5 did not play it in the lesson.

All in all, the teacher favoured topics related to the local culture as she believed this could provide students with a better opportunity to share their personal views about a familiar context, thus to facilitate their attempts at authentication. However, the students tended to find foreign culture more interesting as it usually represented something new and unfamiliar, thus it potentially created curiosity. In the lesson described above, it can be claimed that although students could validate the

text/topic as a relevant and interesting part of the language lesson, they did not authenticate the presentation of it in the lesson effectively.

While students tended to prefer texts related to international cultures in the language classroom, this did not mean that they disapproved contents related to local culture in the lesson. The next sample (Cult#2) aims to illustrate this issue in a more detailed way through selected interview extracts.

### 7.2.2. Cult#2

Based on the teacher's views quoted above and on my classroom observations, I assumed that Sevgi would have spent more time on the speaking part about the special occasions celebrated in Turkey and asked students to elaborate their personal answers as well as sharing her own stories and thoughts related to the topic, which she often did in several occasions (e.g. #2, #10, #12). Therefore, it is worth noting that the lesson described above would have included more dialogic interaction on local culture if it had been delivered by Sevgi. In fact, while we were talking about the lesson during the interview, she claimed that she would have even expanded the task about the local special occasions if she had been teaching the lesson and if there had been more lesson hours.

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68	Sevgi: // For example, while introducing Halloween, I would find a text related to Turkey from another resource. I would photocopy it or show it through my laptop or... with the students, then we could study new words related to us or what's going on in our own culture, or at least I would teach how to make sentences about the [local] culture. Or after teaching Halloween, I would say 'as you know, we have our own special occasions like this, let's write down a couple of sentences related to it' and I would design a small writing task as an additional activity.
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(Sevgi, 121220)

Sevgi emphasised that she would have brought an additional text to the classroom to practice new vocabulary items or to talk and/or write about the local culture in English (turn 68). Indeed, creating a talk about local culture and context and personalising the topic could be seen as her possible act of authentication of a text on international culture.

As described above, the speaking activity in the textbook included ‘discussion’ questions on the special occasions celebrated in the local region (e.g. *Are there any special festivals in your region?*). TT5 spent a relatively short time on this part and moved to the next section so students could not discuss or exemplify their answers. This second sample (Cult#2) includes students’ comments on this particular speaking activity and on the place of the local culture in the language lesson in general. As the extracts here partly refer to the activity described above (i.e. the text on Halloween), the content of this sample can be seen as a continuation of the previous sample.

31	Erkan:	There was also a speaking part about special occasions in Turkey and there were some questions. What do you think about them?
32	Nilay:	We could’ve explained the occasions we celebrated in Turkey such as Ramadan, the festival of sacrifice or 23 April... We just mentioned what we celebrated, we said we celebrated this and that and we went on.

(Nilay, 130102)

About the speaking activity, Nilay stated that they could have spent more time on talking about the local occasions (turn 32). Like the teacher’s claim presented above, this implied that students could contribute more to the speaking parts when the cultural topic was relatively familiar to them. However, this might not mean that familiar, local topics are more interesting than ‘other’ cultures.

49	Erkan:	// For example... I mean what about including something about [an occasion celebrated in Turkey] in the lesson? A short text or a picture?
50	Nilay:	But foreign cultures are more interesting, at the end, [local culture] is very familiar, so we are more interested in the foreign ones.

(Nilay, 130102)

Nilay, for example, stated that ‘foreign’ cultures could be more interesting (turn 50) presumably because they often included unfamiliar and relatively new topics. Yakup also shared similar opinions about addressing ‘foreign cultures’ as well as local occasions in the language.

21	Erkan:	And at the end of the text, there was a speaking part [about special occasions in Turkey]. How was that part?
22	Yakup:	Yes, but it would’ve been better if everyone could’ve expressed their thoughts. But it was OK anyway.
23	Erkan:	And if there were also a paragraph, in the textbook, about a festival celebrated in Turkey, would it be more interesting or=
24	Yakup:	=I think it wouldn’t be that interesting because everyone already knows that occasion, what it is... so learning a topic such as Halloween was better.

(Yakup, 130102)

Yakup stated that more students could have talked about local festivals in the speaking activity (turn 22). However, he would not prefer to see a detailed content in the textbook on a local occasion (turn 24). He elaborated his views as follows:

27	Erkan:	So a local one would be less interesting for you?
28	Yakup:	Yes, it would attract less interest.
29	Erkan:	Why?
30	Yakup:	I mean we already know cultural things in Turkey so why would they try to teach them again? And also in English, it becomes more difficult.
31	Erkan:	I see... so it would be something new related to the culture. What do you think about such texts in general? I mean texts about cultures in the language lesson, like Halloween was introduced as a part of American culture.
32	Yakup:	It should include such topics because it helps us doing different things rather than focusing on the grammar only. I mean, it’s better in this way with different topics. Besides, they usually involve and introduce the grammar points and new words in these texts and in these topics so it becomes better.
50	Erkan:	And what do you think about those questions in the textbook like ‘Do you have similar special occasions in

		your country? How do you celebrate it?' and so on?
51	Yakup:	I don't think it's very relevant... // It doesn't make sense to me, I mean... I don't even know if our festivals can be translated into English. For example can 'Kurban bayramı <sup>17</sup> ' be translated into English?
54	Yakup:	// It wouldn't make any sense to say something like 'we celebrate this or that'... We can talk about it but can't spend the whole lesson on it. Because the purpose is to learn a different one, not the ones we celebrate, we already know them.

(Yakup, 130102)

Yakup listed two issues about explaining local festivals in English in the lesson: first, they already knew the details about the local occasions so talking about them in detail in the lesson would be just repeating the 'known' information and there would be no genuine information exchange; second, it would be more difficult to express their ideas and some of the terms in English as they might be very local and context-specific (turns 30 and 51). This may also explain why S2 in the observation extract in the previous sample said 'Ramazan' in Turkish rather than 'Ramadan' when he was giving an example of local festivals. According to Yakup, a textbook should include topics related to various cultures because this could provide them with a good and interesting contextualisation for the new grammar points and related vocabulary items in the lesson (turn 32). Furthermore, he claimed that one of the purposes of the language classroom was to learn new things, not to spend most of the lesson time talking about the 'already-known' topics (turn 54).

Finally, TT5, who taught the particular lesson described above, made a general comment about including local cultures in the language classroom in our interview session.

31	Erkan:	And what do you think about the place of local culture in the language lesson?
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<sup>17</sup> Here, 'Kurban Bayramı' can be translated into English as 'festival of sacrifice'.

32	TT5: In the language lesson... yes there should be, I mean, excluding our culture from English language teaching... I wouldn't prefer that, I mean we can make it less abstract in the student's mind while giving examples from us, presenting some stuff from our culture. At the end, a high school student may not have heard about Halloween before, like we didn't see it in the school. OK, today we can find it on the Internet or see it on the TV series but, I don't know, it's still vague for us. Including both cultures, maybe making connections would be great. In this way, you can both use the local culture, elaborate it and teach new things like their cultures in the lesson
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(TT, 130410)

The teacher trainee stated that she would not prefer a language lesson without references to the local culture. To her, familiar references and examples from the local culture could make the lesson content less abstract and less vague for students. Therefore, the ideal would be addressing both cultures in the lesson and building connections between them (turn 32). In fact, building such connections could be considered as her possible attempt at authentication of the 'foreign' culture in the lesson.

However, TT5 did not put this into practice in her lesson described in the previous sample (Cult#1). This may result from the TTs' tendencies to exclusively focus on the lesson plan in their practices. During my observations in Classroom B.1, I noticed that Sevgi, the teacher, was able to build successful connections between the target culture and local culture (or familiar and less-familiar contents and contexts) by involving students' personal opinions and local experiences in the lesson. Thus, her 'lesson plans' could be flexible and customisable in a way that students could make it more 'tangible' and relevant. However, despite their 'ideal' planning and preparations, the TTs tended to focus on their lesson plans and clearly aim at carrying these plans in their lessons, which might cause less flexibility and accessibility in terms of students' engagement. These differences, which were

inevitably mirrored in their acts of authentication in the classroom, presumably resulted from their teaching experiences, approaches, professional identities and teaching philosophy.

### **7.2.3. Towards ‘authentication’**

The samples constituting the first theme of this chapter (Cult#1 and Cult#2) addressed cultural elements in the classroom. These elements were presented under the headings of ‘international cultures’ and ‘local cultures’, thus can be viewed from Holliday’s perspective of ‘large culture’ (1999). While local cultures involve references to cultural phenomena, values and behaviours in the local/national level (e.g. Turkish context), international cultures mainly involve customs and behaviours in broader levels.

In Cult#1, a lesson about ‘Halloween’ as a cultural festival was presented. It was considered as a part of international culture because (1) it is not commonly celebrated in Turkey and not regarded as a part of Turkish culture and (2) it is an artefact of today’s popular culture. During the initial coding of the raw data, I recorded in my memos that *‘although the topic of Halloween seemed interesting and engaging to the students, the instruction and presentation did not really foster their authentication of this topic in the classroom context’*. The focused analysis and the extracts shown in this sample supported this claim. In Cult#2, the interview extracts were included to demonstrate the participants’ views on the place of local culture in the language classroom.

At the end, the teacher was in favour of including more about local culture in the lesson to maximise learners’ engagement and interactions and TT5 commenting on



making the cultural topics more concrete and comprehensible for students through references to the local culture. Both attempts can be framed within ‘localisation’ as an act of authentication. The students, on the other hand, seemed to prefer topics related to international cultures as these topics usually offered unfamiliar and new information. However, as seen in the second sample, this did not mean that any topics related to international cultures could be considered directly as ‘authentic’ by the students. In fact, they seemed very selective in terms of topics and presentation of these topics in the classroom, which could influence their process of authentication.

### **7.3. Relating the topic to daily life**

The second theme from Classroom B.1 includes particular classroom incidents in which students’ engagement was promoted through making explicit connections between the topics and their daily lives. Here, the teacher often asked relatively specific questions about the activities or contextual details that influenced students’ lives outside the classroom. Hence, this theme involves extracts and references related to attempts at personalisation and/or localisation of the content.

The following two samples, labelled as Daily#1 and Daily#2, aim to give classroom-based examples of acts of relating the classroom topic to daily life. It is worth highlighting that these acts were usually initiated through a textbook task but elaborated and specified by the teacher. For example, especially the speaking parts in the textbook briefly asked students to give examples from their daily lives and make their own sentences (e.g. *Ask and answer about your partner’s bedroom; What is your opinion of vegetarian food? Tell your partner*). Here, the teacher’s attempt to elaborate and probe specific aspects can be seen as an authentication strategy to elicit

more details from the students and relate the topics to their daily lives. To exemplify this theme, two classroom incidents will be presented below. Both of the samples were taken from grammar-focused language lessons in which the teacher followed the grammar section in the textbook.

### 7.3.1. Daily#1

The first sample of this theme includes the excerpts from a lesson in which students were studying ‘*have to*’ and ‘*don’t have to*’ structures through the textbook exercises. It was on the Grammar section of Unit 3, the goal of which was written as ‘I can talk about something that is necessary or compulsory’ in the textbook. At the beginning of the lesson, the teacher asked students to look at the picture in the textbook and wanted them to talk about it (e.g. *What can you see? Where are they?*). The picture was accompanied by a short reading text and it had a group of young boys in army uniforms. The text was written by the textbook authors to introduce ‘have to’ in the context of what a young boy had to do in a military school.

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<b>T:</b> [pointing at the picture] Where are they?	<b>S1:</b> In school. <b>S2:</b> Soldiers.
<b>T:</b> Military school, yes. Have a look at the text and tell me what do they have to do every day? What time do they get up? What do they wear?	<b>Ss:</b> At 6 o'clock. <b>Ss:</b> Uniforms.
<b>T:</b> They have to, HAVE TO, tidy their rooms every morning! have to... very important. Do you have to tidy your rooms in the mornings?	<b>Ss:</b> No! [laughing]
<b>T:</b> No, because your mothers tidy your rooms I guess... but they HAVE TO tidy their rooms. It is a must!	<b>S1:</b> Must. <b>S2:</b> Zorunluluk.
<b>T:</b> At the weekend, they have to do a lot of sports. Do you do any sports? Do you HAVE TO do sports at the weekend? It is not necessary for most	<b>S1:</b> Have to.

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of us. It is not a must!	<b>Ss:</b> No. <b>S3:</b> Yes, I do!
<b>T:</b> For him [S3] it is necessary... hmm because he is a sport boy. He plays in a basketball team.	<b>S3:</b> Yes.
<b>T:</b> What about uniforms? Is it a must? No... You don't have to wear uniforms in the school anymore.	<b>Ss:</b> No. <b>S1:</b> We don't have to wear uniforms.
<b>T:</b> I didn't like it much but we'll see [TR]. What do you think about it?	<b>S4:</b> I think... <b>S5:</b> It's great [TR] I really liked it. <b>S4:</b> Me too [TR]
<b>T:</b> I don't agree with you. Anyway...	(Classroom observation, <b>B.1#2</b> )

Sevgi, the teacher, asked the students a personalised question almost after each sentence in the text. Most of these questions were directed to the students to elicit their own answers rather than the information provided in the text. As seen above, this particular classroom interaction, which was in a polar-question format, was mainly controlled by the teacher and the students usually provided very short answers. In fact, explicitly stressing 'have to' in her questions and not spending much time on students' answers or not letting them elaborate their answers indicated that the teacher's questions were focused on practising the target grammar point. Although the teacher attempted to create a sequence of dialogical interaction to foster students' involvement, she usually held the floor and controlled the interaction. At the end, she posed a question about the school uniforms and provided her own answer again.

The question on the school uniforms was particularly interesting because there was no reference to wearing uniforms in the reading text except for the picture of young boys in military uniforms. However, it was a very current discussion topic in Turkey during the time this observation was conducted as the Turkish government had

recently removed the requirement of wearing uniforms in the public schools (November 2012). After the students confirmed the teacher's statement, there was a short discussion on this topic in the classroom. The discussion was mostly in Turkish and the teacher explicitly stated that she disagreed with the students who supported the lifting of the school uniform requirement. If the teacher had continued this discussion and let students share and discuss their personal opinions and experiences about the school uniforms, the attempts to relate the topic to students' daily lives could have led to a more dialogical conversation and making the process of authentication by the participants more salient in the classroom context.

However, the teacher continued the lesson with the next textbook activity. She read the grammar box in the textbook aloud and this time she provided a few examples from her own life (e.g. *We use 'have to' to say something is necessary or compulsory... For example, I am a teacher so I have to prepare a lesson and teach my lessons in the school. I am a mother so I have to...*). That she included personal samples from her life in her rather deductive grammar teaching could be also seen as an act of authentication in this lesson. Then they did a fill-in-the-blank activity and a listening activity in the textbook. After this, the teacher asked students to finish the grammar exercises at the end of the textbook as homework and draw two columns on their notebooks to write what they had to do at home and at school.

After giving the homework, the teacher wanted students to read the text about a description of 'an ideal school' and to complete the sentences with the correct forms of 'have to'. She started reading the text aloud sentence by sentence and usually translated them into Turkish. After she read the sentence '*They \_\_\_\_ wear a school*

*uniform, but it's a really cool, nice uniform'*, students started talking about school uniforms again. This time, it was a longer discussion on school rules and school uniforms. This talk was again mostly in Turkish. As mentioned above, this topic was very popular in Turkey as the government had abolished school uniform requirement recently. It was clear that although most of the students liked this new execution, the teacher was a bit sceptical and not very happy with the new regulations. After listening to students' arguments and thoughts, the teacher talked in favour of wearing uniforms in schools especially in terms of security, parents' possible concerns, some possible undesirable student behaviours, different socio-economic status among students and so on. After this discussion the school bell rang.

In the break time, I had an opportunity to talk with the teacher about this lesson and their talk on the school uniforms. Unfortunately, it was not a planned interview session but rather an informal chat while walking to the teachers' room. I took my notes about this talk in my field notes as it was not audio-recorded.

School B 12.12.2012	I talked with Sevgi about the lesson (#2). She briefly repeated her opinions about the new regulation (clearly she wasn't very happy with abolishing uniform requirements in public schools). She stated that she had deliberately brought the topic into the lesson as it was very trendy and it could help students remember the subject ('have to'). She said 'if students see something that they experience in everyday life, they can make connections and learn and remember the lesson better'. When I asked about her thoughts on the fact that the discussion was mainly in Turkish in the lesson, she said she 'couldn't expect students to use English in such talks' because of their [low] level of language proficiency.
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(Field notes)

According to Sevgi, relating the lesson to students' lives through the current issues could lead to a better learning experience as it could enable students to make connections between what they experience in the lesson and outside the classroom.

This was why she ‘deliberately’ talked about school uniforms in this particular activity to emphasise the grammar item. In terms of using Turkish during the discussion, she stated that she did not expect students to share their opinions in English because of their levels of language proficiency at that stage. The same comment about the proficiency level was also repeated by Nilay as well (turn 68).

65	Erkan:	Then you talked about the school uniforms, actually you talked about this topic twice in the same lesson.
66	Nilay:	Yes, the teacher asked us if we had to wear school uniforms. Then we said no. It was interesting. Because some of us really like this, I mean we aren’t supposed to wear the uniforms anymore, but the teacher seemed she didn’t like it much. I don’t know, it was an interesting talk.
67	Erkan:	But it was mostly in Turkish?
68	Nilay:	Yes. We can’t talk in English that much, our level isn’t that high.


(Nilay, 121211)

Nilay stated that the teacher and her classmates had different views about school uniforms and this made it an interesting topic in the classroom (turn 66). Raising this issue during the lesson, the teacher led an implicit shift from explicit grammar instruction to deeper personal engagement with the topic. Although it was restricted in terms of turn-taking proportion and target language use, it was a noticeable attempt to authenticate the content. The second sample of this theme (Daily#2) also addresses this issue through another classroom incident in which the teacher introduced the irregular verbs in English.

### 7.3.2. Daily#2

Like the previous sample, this sample also addresses relating the topic to students’ lives and making it personal for the students. The excerpts below were from a lesson in which the irregular verbs in the simple past tense were studied. The overall goal of the classroom tasks was stated as ‘I can talk about past events’ in the textbook. At

the beginning of the lesson, the students were asked to read a text about Caroline Herschel, a famous astronomer who discovered a number of comets, and to complete the text with the past forms of the verbs given in brackets. After the students completed the text, they read the sentences aloud and checked their answers. When they finished reading the whole text aloud, the teacher said ‘*You know, spelling and pronunciation are very important. We will practice these verbs*’. Then, she asked students to look at the verbs in the following activity and asked them to say the past simple forms of the verbs aloud.

**6**  **2.35 PRONUNCIATION** What are the past simple forms of the verbs below? Put them into pairs that rhyme. Then listen and check.

break buy catch do grow hide keep know  
make pay read say see sell send sleep speak  
spend tell wear

broke – spoke

(Solutions Türkiye A1, p.63)

After the students pronounced the past simple forms of these verbs one by one, the teacher wanted them to put these verbs into pairs that rhyme (e.g. bought – caught) and to write them down in their notebooks. Then they listened to the correct answers on iTools and checked their answers. At this point, by encouraging students to make their own sentences, the teacher went beyond the instruction in the textbook, which could be seen as an act of authentication by her.

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**T:** Now, let's make sentences for these verbs. Who wants to use 'broke' in a sentence....

**S1:** Does it mean 'kırmak' [TR]

**S2:** Yes.

**T:** Just a sentence. Maybe something you did.

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(Classroom observation, **B.1#10**)

The teacher, Sevgi, asked for a volunteer to make a sentence with 'broke' and emphasised that it could be about 'something they had done'. This could be

interpreted as an attempt to relate the lesson to students' daily lives and contextualise the topic through realistic, personal examples. Sevgi also had short dialogues with the students about their examples, presumably with the purpose of elaboration and practice of the target structure.

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<b>T:</b> Ok... Yes, make a sentence with 'broke'... Negative, question or positive...	<b>S1:</b> Broke...
	<b>S2:</b> I broke my arm.
<b>T:</b> I broke my arm... When did you break your arm?	<b>Ss:</b> When? [TR]
	<b>S2:</b> I fall.
	<b>S1:</b> She said 'when'! [TR]
<b>T:</b> Ok, I fell and... use 'and'	<b>S2:</b> I fall... fell and broke my arm.
<b>T:</b> When?	<b>S2:</b> Yesterday.
<b>T:</b> Yesterday... How is it now?	<b>S2:</b> ? Good [TR]
	<b>S3:</b> Did you break your arm? [TR]
	<b>S2:</b> No [TR]
<b>T:</b> Ok. What about 'spoke'? negative, question, positive... use it in a sentence please.	<b>S4:</b> I spoke to my uncle.
<b>T:</b> I spoke to my uncle... about what?	<b>S4:</b> about what is the weather like.
<b>T:</b> Ok, about the weather.	<b>S4:</b> He said the weather is sunny.
<b>T:</b> So about the weather and water.	<b>Ss:</b> [laughing]
	<b>S4:</b> Yes! 'Weather and water' [TR]

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(Classroom observation, **B.1#10**)

When the teacher asked for a sample sentence, S2 made a simple but grammatically correct sentence. The teacher recognised this sentence by repeating it and asked a question to elicit further information rather than continuing the textbook task. This ostensibly genuine question led to a short dialogue with the student. First, S2's answer '*I fall*' was challenged by one of her classmates as it did not explicitly indicate any temporal information. After eliciting the time expression from the student (S3), the teacher asked a new question. S2's statement, however, was questioned again by another classmate. Interestingly, S2's answer to S3 implied that



her sample sentence was a made-up one. That is, although the teacher tried to authenticate the task by giving S2 a chance to elaborate her answer and develop a genuine talk, S2's answer was a staged response for the classroom task without a real situation. The teacher did not pay attention to this 'detail' and went on the second verb in the list and asked another student to use it in a sentence.

This time, S4 made a relatively simple sentence with 'spoke' and as S2 did, he started his sentence with the pronoun 'I'. In other words, he also signalled that the sentence included personal statement and/or experience. The teacher encouraged him to give more information as well. In response to S2's answer, the teacher made a joke in English and said '*so about the weather and water*', which was a word by word translation of a Turkish saying that referred to 'of this and that'.

In the interview session, Nilay shared her thoughts about having this kind of classroom interactions with the teacher both in this particular occasion and in general.

11	Erkan:	The teacher sometimes asks you to elaborate your sentences in the lesson. // What do you think about this?
12	Nilay:	About that... It's good to have a conversation in the lesson, for us to improve our English... But it isn't always very easy.
13	Erkan:	What do you mean? Most students can say one or two things though.
14	Nilay:	Yes, because we've started to use English more in the lesson.
18	Nilay:	And this becomes something fixed. It's good that the teacher continues it by asking more questions... [If I were the teacher] I would do the same... I would definitely continue it.

(Nilay, 130327)

According to Nilay, being given a chance to express their own thoughts and examples might help the students to improve their target language. In a sense, she

regarded talking about their daily lives in English as a useful activity in the classroom (turn 12). She also claimed that creating or maintaining such tasks could be difficult (turn 12) presumably because of their language proficiency level. Moreover, as they were often encouraged by the teacher to use the target language in the classroom, dialogues in English and about their daily lives became relatively standard activities in the lesson. Finally, Nilay emphasised that she would have also continued this kind dialogue if she had been the teacher (turn 18). This implied that Nilay validated these talks in the classroom context and found them relevant and useful.

23	Erkan:	And do you think the teacher asks those questions because she really cares about the answer?
24	Nilay:	No.
25	Erkan:	What do you mean? She seems she's really interested, like wondering about=
26	Nilay:	=but... I mean, for example, it's usually similar questions like I broke my arm, when did you break your arm? And such.
27	Erkan:	But she seemed a bit surprised and said 'how did you break it?'
29	Nilay:	But there is a thing... because nobody broke his/her arm, the sentences weren't true. They were made up.
30	Erkan:	Really?
31	Nilay:	Yes, so there is nothing to be curious about.
32	Erkan:	But she asked it in a very realistic way.
33	Nilay:	The teacher sounded it in that way to make it more realistic... to help us talk and improve our English.

(Nilay, 130327)

Interestingly, however, as a response to my questions (turns 23 and 25), Nilay described the teacher's questions here as pedagogically motivated ones rather than as genuine expressions of interest (turns 24, 26 and 33). According to her, those questions could be rather predictable because they seemed to be asked to practise particular topics (turn 26). In fact, about the activity described above, Nilay confirmed that the dialogue between the teacher and the student (S2) was 'made-up' for the sake of the language exercise (turn 29), thus there was no genuine

information exchange between the teacher and S2 (turn 31). Although the interaction might not be very interesting for the participants due to its lack of ‘genuineness’, the teacher’s way of asking and her engagement made the dialogue ‘more realistic’ and pedagogically beneficial (turns 31 and 33). However, I observed that the teacher’s intention and acts in this particular classroom incident seemed somewhat genuine and her questions were sincere because she did not know that the student was ‘making up’ a story about her arm.

All in all, the teacher’s attempt to elicit more information by continuing the dialogue with the students and encouraging them to use the target language to personalise the topic can be seen as an act of authentication. Indeed, this was observed as a typical practice of the teacher during the data collection process. Although the students often gave positive responses to such attempts and appreciated their communicative functions, they regarded these kinds of interaction mainly as pedagogically-motivated acts. This, again, highlights the special position of the language classroom where the purpose is to promote both learning and using the target language.

### **7.3.3. Towards ‘authentication’**

This theme addressed two classroom samples (Daily#1 and Daily#2) to demonstrate the process of authentication through which classroom topics and daily life were attempted to be bridged. In Daily#1, an incident was presented in which a contrived text in the coursebook and relatively deductive grammar instruction by the teacher led into a discussion related to a current topic in Turkey, particularly among teachers and students. Although the interaction was highly teacher-dominated and mainly in Turkish, it functioned as a springboard to relate the topic to the daily life and to develop a conversation in which participants could express their opinions. Daily#2

also showed the teacher's acts to practise the simple past tense while fostering the students' engagement and creating a genuine dialogue that was personalised and related to their daily lives. At the end, although both of the incidents described above had departure points from the textbook content, it was the teacher's attempts to provide students with the opportunity of relating the topic to their daily lives and to facilitate their authentication process in the classroom through personalisation and localisation of the content.

#### **7.4. Creating 'imaginary' scenarios in the classroom**

The final theme of this chapter includes samples in which 'imaginary' scenarios were created to practise and use the target language. 'Imaginary scenarios' in the theme title refers to hypothetical settings or situations created in/for the classroom. It is worth emphasising that these contexts, although 'imaginary', are composed of realistic and familiar details. In fact, since creating 'imaginary scenarios' to promote target language use necessitates significant interaction between different components of the lesson (e.g. text, context, students and teacher), it provides an illustrative and convincing case to discuss 'authenticity' as it is (co)constructed through the process of authentication in the language classroom. In order to present the participants' attempts to create such scenarios to validate and personalise the topic (or the task) in the classroom, I will present two samples below labelled as Imagi#1 and Imagi#2.

##### **7.4.1. Imagi#1**

The first sample of this theme (Imagi#1) involves excerpts from a lesson in which the teacher introduced the new unit in the textbook. The unit was about 'places in town' (Unit 6A) and one of the goals of the unit was listed as 'giving directions'. There was a map of a town in the textbook and all of the activities on the first page

of the unit were based on that map (e.g. vocabulary – matching the places on the map with the given words, listening – listening to the dialogues and following the directions to find where the speakers want to go). Instead of starting with the given map, the teacher preferred to present the new unit in her own way.

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**T:** In Unit 6, we're going to learn describing places in a town. For example, when you meet a tourist or a person from another country on the street, and this person wants help... she asks you how she can go to Anıtkabir... because Anıtkabir is a landmark in Ankara and every tourist wants to visit Anıtkabir. How can you show the way or give directions for Anıtkabir?

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(Classroom observation, **B.1#6**)

After briefly introducing what the topic of the new unit was, the teacher created an imaginary situation related to the topic and asked students to give directions to a familiar place, Anıtkabir. It is the mausoleum of Atatürk, the founder of the Republic of Turkey and it is a famous tourist attraction in Ankara, located very close to School B. After asking this question, the teacher warned students and said '*Don't say like this: go, go, go and stop... then right... then go, go, go and look left. Ok?*' because this kind of utterance was usually used in Turkey to give directions in English. Most of the students found this very funny and they repeated similar utterances in English. Then one of the students shared a related joke from a Turkish movie and a couple of students talked about it. The teacher recognised the student's joke and used it as a transition to move on to the main topic. She said '*Please don't do like this movie character, Ok? So, learn correct ways of giving direction, it's very important when you go to another country or when you meet a foreign person here.*' After this, she asked students to look at the textbook and match the places on the map with the given words.

Here, the teacher's attempt to create this imaginary situation to contextualise the topic in a familiar setting could be also seen as an attempt of authentication. However, the fact that the teacher did not give students the opportunity to answer her question or students did not make an attempt to answer the question showed that her main purpose was to help students make sense of the new topic in a familiar and local context rather than to create a genuine dialogue. Therefore, one can regard this attempt as a good contextualisation of and a smooth transition to the new topic in the lesson. The teacher's humorous warning and one of the students' relevant jokes can show the positive engagement of the participants in this process. In the interviews, it became clear that both Yakup and Nilay responded positively to the teacher's way of introducing the new unit.

83	Erkan:	What do you think about the teacher's asking that question? I mean giving directions to a tourist for Anıtkabir?	
84	Yakup:	It was good. It's always good to start with familiar things. She wanted us to imagine how we could give directions in English here.	(Yakup, 130226)
77	Nilay:	It was funny. And she said ' <i>don't say go, go, go</i> ' [laughing]. Because we usually give directions like that. I think it was good that the teacher started in that way. At least most of us got an opinion about the topic, we thought about what we could do in such a situation.	(Nilay, 130226)

Yakup appreciated the teacher's starting a language lesson with familiar topics and he acknowledged the aim as encouraging students to imagine how they could have responded in similar situations (turn 84). Likewise, Nilay emphasised that it was good to start the new unit in this way as it raised students' awareness and made them think about their possible responses (turn 77). Nonetheless, it should be noted that the students' actual responses in such a situation (i.e. giving directions to Anıtkabir)

did not take place in the particular incident described above. That is, they did not practise the target language in this imaginary situation at all.

In the interviews, the students also compared giving directions to a foreigner in Turkey with asking for directions abroad. For example, Nilay stated that although they had not answered the teacher's question in the lesson, she could have given directions to a tourist for Anıtkabir (turn 79).

78	Erkan:	And she asked if you could give directions in that situation.
79	Nilay:	Yes. We didn't do it in the lesson but I can do it if a tourist asks for the directions here...
80	Erkan:	I see. For example from the school to Anıtkabir?
81	Nilay:	Yes... but it wouldn't be the same if I go abroad and ask.
82	Erkan:	What do you mean?
83	Nilay:	It would be different.
84	Erkan:	Why? Let's say you go to England or the United States or somewhere else... Could you ask for directions, for example, for a museum?
85	Nilay:	But when a foreigner comes to Turkey, s/he uses his/her own language and we try to speak their language. Again, when we go there, we still need to speak English... so I have to use English in either way.
86	Erkan:	I see. And what about the response?
87	Nilay:	They speak differently. If they speak slowly, I could understand and find the directions. // But they speak so fast! It isn't like what we would do. We would speak slowly and clearly in those situations.

(Nilay, 130226)

According to Nilay giving directions to a tourist in Turkey and asking for directions abroad would be very different (turn 81). She stated that in both cases she would have to use English but understanding the given directions would be more difficult than merely giving the directions in English for a familiar place because 'they' (speakers of English) would speak 'differently' (turns 85 and 87). By 'differently', Nilay referred to speaking fast and unintelligibly (turns 87 and 89). To her, in a similar situation (i.e. giving directions), speakers of Turkish would speak slowly and clearly to be understood better (turn 89).

All in all, the teacher's attempt to create an imaginary, but familiar, scenario to introduce a new unit and to involve the students into the topic through this scenario can be seen as the initiation of the authentication process by the teacher in the classroom. However, the fact that she did not provide students with the opportunity to answer her question may show that her main goal was not to elicit a specific answer or to create a genuine dialogue but to help students to picture a somewhat realistic situation where they could use the target language. Moreover, the students' positive responses to this attempt and Nilay's comparison of the possible communicative acts in different contexts in which they could use the target language demonstrated their awareness and authentication potential.

While it was the teacher who introduced an imaginary scenario in the lesson in this sample, in the following sample (Imagi#2), this time the students created and presented an imaginary setting as a part of their homework.

#### **7.4.2. Imagi#2**

In Classroom B.1, when the teacher gave dialogue preparation as homework, students usually read their dialogues aloud or merely put them on the display board in the classroom. However, in Observation #12, the students prepared and presented their homework as an act-out at the beginning of the lesson. This second sample (Imagi#2) is about a presentation of an imaginary scenario by the students as a part of their homework. The excerpts below are about this presentation and the students' act-out about ordering food in a restaurant.



The teacher had given the homework in the previous lesson following a speaking activity in the textbook. The activity was in the ‘Everyday English’ section of Unit 5 and its aim was stated as ‘I can order food and drinks in a café’ in the textbook.

**9** **SPEAKING** Work in groups of three. Prepare a dialogue like the dialogue in exercise 2. Use the phrases in exercise 3.  
**Students A and B:** You are customers. Order food and a drink from the menu in exercise 1.  
**Student C:** You work in the café. Serve the customers and tell them the total cost.

**10** **SPEAKING** Act out your dialogue to the class.

(*Solutions Türkiye A1*, p.50)

Briefly, the students were asked to prepare a dialogue like the one presented in the textbook. In that sample dialogue, the students read and listened to two customers ordering food and drink in a café. The textbook also provided a sample menu and a photo of three people with the dialogue. After doing the textbook tasks about that dialogue (e.g. studying useful phrases and practising how to say prices in the pound sterling), the students were asked to work in groups of three and prepare a similar dialogue. Moreover, in Exercise 10, they were asked to ‘act out’ their dialogues to the class.

For their act-out, a group of students placed the teacher’s desk in front of the white board before the lesson. They put two chairs next to the table and wrote ‘*Canparem*<sup>18</sup> Restaurant – since 1860’ on the white board. They also put a handwritten restaurant menu they had prepared by the board. In short, they created an ‘imaginary’ restaurant setting in the classroom. After their act-out, the students expressed that they had created the main story and written down the transcript of the dialogue which they had been practising before the lesson.

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<sup>18</sup> The word ‘canparem’ can be translated as ‘my sweetheart’ into English.

Although the task in the textbook asked for a group of three, the students divided roles as two customers, one waiter, one manager and two bodyguards. In their act-out, two friends went to a restaurant and ordered food. Since the amount in the bill was higher than they expected, they could not pay it and they had an argument with the restaurant manager. At the end, the bodyguards kicked them out. During the act-out, especially two of the students were reading their lines from the paper while the others seemed that they had memorised the lines. Overall, the performance was appreciated by most of the students and the teacher. However, the teacher stated that they could have paid more attention to make a better dialogue using the phrases they had learned in the previous lesson (as the textbook task suggested).

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*T: That was OK. Your friends tried to make a good dialogue and act out. Of course it's very exciting, they were excited... It's normal. You made some grammar mistakes but it's not a big problem. Because the important thing here is to act out in front of your classmates. While asking for something as a waiter or customers in a restaurant, you should be polite... kibar olmamiz gerekiyor [we need to be polite]. The dialogue was funny, yes... but not as good as we expected... Anyway, the acting was very good. Thank you very much.*

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(Classroom observation, **B.1#12**)

The teacher, Sevgi, stressed the importance of performing an act-out in the classroom and asked students to pay attention to the politeness in specific contexts such as ordering food in a restaurant. She also stated that she found the dialogue prepared by the students funny but not as good as expected presumably because it was not very parallel with the sample dialogue given in the textbook. Although Sevgi acknowledged the students' genuine story in the act-out, she focused on the pedagogical purpose and pointed out the main goal of the task: to practice a list of

useful phrases that could be used in ordering food in a café or a restaurant. The students, on the other hand, seemed to focus on the creativity and originality in their story. In the interview, Nilay, one of the customers in the act-out, stated that she found this activity ‘enjoyable’ in general (turn 07).

05	Erkan:	How was it?
06	Nilay:	Very enjoyable.
07	Erkan:	What was enjoyable for you?
08	Nilay:	It was fun that we practised English in that way... I mean in front of everyone and we did something different than usual.
09	Erkan:	What do you mean by different?
10	Nilay:	I mean it was something like... like we were in a different place because everyone was speaking in English and it made you more self-confident.
26	Nilay:	It was also good to involve some jokes, I mean the sentences were mostly different.
27	Erkan:	Yes, like he couldn't pay the bill...
28	Nilay:	Yes, yes! It was so good that we didn't say the classical things like 'How much is it? It's this much... here you are' and such... It was more like our own creation.
35	Erkan:	The teacher said you had made some grammar mistakes but the important thing was to be able to act it in front of everyone and have a practice. What do you think about that?
36	Nilay:	I agree. I mean we made some mistakes but I think it was more fun. If we had paid more attention to the grammar and those expressions in the book, then it would've been very similar to the one in the textbook. Then a different, new thing wouldn't have been done and it would've been same for everyone. That's why ours was more fun.

(Nilay, 130226)

According to Nilay, their outcome was not very similar with the others mainly because the students used their imagination to write a genuine story and created a restaurant setting in which they used English. Moreover, she saw acting out in front of other classmates as a way to feel ‘more self-confident’ to use English in communication (turns 08 and 10). Nilay emphasised that their dialogue also included lines different than the typical phrases listed in the textbook (turns 26 and 28). She also considered the grammar mistakes as a part of components that made the overall dialogue entertaining and she claimed that if they had focused on the structure or the

useful phrases given in the textbook, then they would have indeed repeated the same dialogue in the textbook rather than having their ‘own creation’ and it would have been considered as another procedural output (turns 28 and 36). However, Yakup seemed to have a different opinion about this act-out (turn 08).

07	Erkan:	How was that?
08	Yakup:	It wasn't very good, but at least they tried to do something. It was good in general.
09	Erkan:	What else can you say about it?
10	Yakup:	I think it was amateurish, it looked like they hadn't prepared at all, but anyway at least they tried.
11	Erkan:	Why did you find it amateurish?
12	Yakup:	I mean it would've been better if they had paid more attention.
13	Erkan:	In terms of preparation or the content?
14	Yakup:	As for the content I think it was OK, but for preparation they could've done different things. It would've been better. They could've practised and acted out better.
26	Yakup:	These kinds of things help us to move away from the textbook... I mean practising in the classroom what we see in the textbook. If it's done well, it can be helpful...

(Yakup, 130226)

Apparently, Yakup did not found his classmates' performance very professional (turn 10). To him, the content was acceptable but acting was not very good as they had not practised enough (turn 14). As quoted above, the teacher also referred to this point in her comment. Overall, Yakup found these kinds of tasks helpful to go beyond the textbook content and to have a chance to practice what they studied in the classroom. However, he emphasised that these could be useful for students if they were carried out well (turn 26). In fact, later in the interview, he stated that the students were directly reading the lines from the script so it did not sound ‘realistic’ compared to a possible dialogue in a real restaurant (turn 42).

In fact, I asked Yakup and Nilay to compare this act-out with an actual food ordering in a restaurant as well as with the dialogue given in the textbook. The students shared

different views on the extent to which these texts could correspond to one another. It is worth reminding that Nilay was one of the students who took part in the act-out.

27	Erkan:	So let's say... three restaurant dialogues... a dialogue in a real restaurant, the dialogue given in the textbook and the one acted out in the classroom. If I ask you to compare these three=
28	Yakup:	=they weren't even close.
29	Erkan:	What do you mean?
30	Yakup:	They're all different, they aren't even close.
31	Erkan:	Why did you say that?
32	Yakup:	I mean they're different. Let's say the one in the textbook and in the real life may be similar but the one they did in the classroom was very different. They made their own story and it didn't seem very realistic. They weren't prepared well.

(Yakup, 130226)

In terms of correspondence, Yakup claimed that the dialogue given in the textbook might seem similar to the one in real life. However, he stated that the act-out in the classroom was very different from a possible dialogue in an actual restaurant outside the classroom mainly because of the (unrealistic) story and the (lack of) preparedness of the students in the act-out (turns 30 and 32). Nilay, on the other hand, found their dialogue in the classroom close to a dialogue that one may encounter in a real restaurant setting (turn 50).

46	Nilay:	First, like we don't say 'how much is this?' but just say 'how much?' in Turkish, most probably we would do the same there. I mean it's more practical and more everyday-speaking. So it wouldn't make sense to always repeat those full, long sentences here in the classroom... I mean it would be more relaxed there, more informal.
47	Erkan:	The title also says 'Everyday English' here.
48	Nilay:	Yes, it says 'Everyday English' but it shows all the long sentences in the dialogue.
49	Erkan:	What about yours?
50	Nilay:	Ours wasn't like this but more like everyday speaking... The sentences were not very fixed... // I think it was the most enjoyable thing in the second term so far.

(Nilay, 130226)

Nilay compared the 'classroom' or 'textbook' sentences with everyday speaking and gave an example from Turkish language. She claimed that in everyday use, language

could be more practical and informal than the one represented in the classroom context. Apparently, formal and long sentences were not always preferred by the students as they might not correspond to the language used outside (turns 46 and 48). Indeed, Nilay stated that the sentences in their dialogue were not very mechanical or formal, especially compared to the rather formal sentences and fixed turn-takings in the textbook dialogues (turn 50).

In our interview session with the teacher, I also mentioned a comparison between a dialogue in the textbook and one that may take place in a setting outside the classroom. Sevgi, like Nilay, stated that textbook dialogues could seem ‘more formal’ to the students (turn 181).

180	Erkan:	For example comparing a dialogue given the textbook with a dialogue that students may hear in a restaurant or in a museum in daily life... in some lessons students also prepare such dialogues=
181	Sevgi:	=yes, of course the ones in the book seem, let's say, more formal and students try to do in a more informal way because they like it. That's why we should also teach a couple of additional phrases or expressions that are close to everyday speaking. I think the ones in the book sound more formal.
182	Erkan:	Why do you think it sounds more formal?
183	Sevgi:	Because of the teaching purpose? I mean the book tries to introduce certain things and presents dialogues accordingly... And they can't be always like those 'relaxed' dialogues in daily life.

(Sevgi, 130404)

Sevgi claimed that students could prefer the ‘informal or everyday’ language to the formal language samples in the textbook because they liked the former. Indeed, this could urge a teacher to go beyond the sentences given in the textbook and to introduce additional phrases or expressions from everyday use (turn 181). Sevgi explained that the purpose of teaching particular topics and structures might lead to the presentation of apparently formal samples in the textbook (turn 183). That is, she

explicitly referred to the pedagogical purposes in the content of the textbook. In the classroom incident described above, she pointed out this explicitly while commenting on the students' act-out, which indicated her normative role in the classroom context.

At the end, the students' attempt to create and perform a personalised and genuine dialogue can be seen as a good example of authentication in the language classroom. The reason why I prefer to call it as 'genuine' is that (1) the students tried to change the original task given in the textbook and create their own output; (2) they volunteered to perform it in the classroom rather than simply reading it aloud or putting the transcription of the dialogue on the classroom board; and (3) other students seemed enjoyed it and made connections between the act-out and the related exercise in the textbook (#12). The interview data revealed that the participants had varying responses to this act-out and a possible comparison between it and a situation that could happen in a real restaurant setting. While the teacher seemed to focus on the content and the structure of the act-out, Nilay mainly focused on the content and originality of their story. Yakup, on the other hand, mainly commented on the performance rather than its relevance or structure.

#### **7.4.3. Towards 'authentication'**

The final theme of this chapter addressed 'imaginary scenarios' in the language classroom through two samples (Imagi#1 and Imagi#2). Here, although the word 'imaginary' has the implication of being hypothetical and fictional, it can include somewhat 'realistic' and 'familiar' contextual details, which could be indeed 'possible' as well. In Imagi#1, for example, a classroom incident in which the teacher created an imaginary situation to introduce a new topic was presented. Here,

the teacher facilitates the authentication process through this imaginary, but possible and interesting situation that could be a part of her attempt at localisation of the content. In Imagi#2, a group of students performed their act-out in the classroom. The act-out happened in an imaginary restaurant context they had created. Although receiving different responses, this act-out helped students to personalise the process and their output, thus to practise the target language through a relatively deeper engagement instead of through a simple repetition of the textbook dialogue.

### 7.5. Summary

Three themes were presented in this chapter in order to illustrate how the process of authentication was observed in the specific classroom samples in Classroom B.1.

Themes	Samples	
Addressing international and local cultures in the language classroom	Culture: Halloween	Cult#1
	Culture: Special occasions in local culture	Cult#2
Relating the topic to daily life	‘Do you have to wear school uniforms?’	Daily#1
	‘When did you break your arm?’	Daily#2
Creating imaginary scenarios in the classroom	Giving directions for Anitkabir	Imagi#1
	Acting out: Canparem restaurant	Imagi#2

Table 7.1. Themes – Classroom B.1

In the first theme (Section 7.2), I presented two related samples on cultural references in the language lessons. The first sample was about ‘Halloween’ as a part of international culture and the participants’ responses to this topic. The second sample was on the participants’ views about the familiar cultural elements in the language lesson. The findings demonstrated that the students and teacher could respond differently to the cultural topics in the classroom. For example, while the



teacher and the teacher trainee were in favour of local references to foster students' engagement, the students seemed more interested in intercultural topics.

The second theme (Section 7.3) addressed the teacher's attempts to relate the topics in the classroom to daily life, thus to localise some contents and encourage students to give personal samples. In the first sample, the teacher shared examples from her daily life and posed personalised questions to the students. She also started a brief discussion on the regulation for school uniforms, which was a very current topic at that time. In the second sample, as an act of authentication, the teacher went beyond the textbook instruction and aimed at furthering students' involvement in the activity. She asked students questions about their responses and attempted to develop genuine dialogues with them. Finally, the third theme (Section 7.4) involved two classroom samples on creating imaginary scenarios as an act of authentication in the lesson. In the first sample, the teacher created an imaginary situation to introduce a new unit and localise the content. In this sense, localisation was used as an act of authentication of the lesson plan. In the second sample, the process of authentication was observed through a group of students' act-out in the classroom. In the act-out, the students had the opportunity to create an imaginary scenario and personalise the content rather than simply repeating the sample in the textbook.

## CHAPTER 8

# FINDINGS (B.2)

### **8.0. Introduction**

This chapter includes specific details and findings from Classroom B.2 in School B. After presenting the background information about the research participants and overall classroom environment, I will address details of the data collection and analysis procedures. Then, I will present three themes emerged in this unit of analysis. This will be followed by a summary of the findings presented in this chapter.

### **8.1. Background**

Background information related to Classroom B.2 includes the details about research participants, classroom context and data collection process. As data analysis procedures have been already explained in detail in Chapter 4, the related section in this chapter refers to some examples to illustrate the analysis process (Appendix 8.1) and involves the themes developed from Classroom B.2.

#### **8.1.1. Participants**

Participants from Classroom B.2 were the language teacher, two teacher trainees and two students. Faruk, a pseudonym used for the language teacher, was in his 50s and he had nearly 30 years of teaching experience. He had worked in various state and private schools before he was assigned as a language teacher to School B. During some of my classroom observations there were also six teacher trainees (TT) in the

classroom. They prepared and taught some of the lessons (e.g. classroom observations #12 and #14<sup>19</sup>). As I observed their lessons and issues about their lessons were mentioned during the interviews with students, I included two of the teacher trainees (TT7 and TT8) as research participants. I conducted an interview session with them but they did not want me to use an audio recorder during the interview. As a result, the interview was recorded as a written field note.

There were 24 students in the classroom (7 girls and 17 boys). Students were 14-15 years old and most of them had started studying English at the 4<sup>th</sup> grade (when they were 9-10 years old). As a result of the placement test for the 9<sup>th</sup> grades conducted at the beginning of the academic year, Classroom B.2 was also comprised of students with A1 proficiency level (according to CEFR). I conducted interviews with two students from this classroom. In this study, the pseudonyms Emir and Gizem were used for these two students. Both of them were 15 years old. Emir had graduated from a state school in Izmir and Gizem had graduated from a private school in Ankara before they started the 9<sup>th</sup> grade at this school. Unlike Emir, who had been studying English since 4<sup>th</sup> grade, Gizem had been studying English since 2<sup>nd</sup> grade and her English level was considered higher than most of her classmates. Both of them could be easily observed from the place where I sat in the classroom.

### **8.1.2. Classroom context**

As in Classroom B.1, each pair of students was sharing a two-student desk in Classroom B.2. There were some extra desks in the classroom so some of the students were sitting individually in some lessons rather than sharing a desk with a classmate. There were four rows of desks in the classroom and the teacher's desk

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<sup>19</sup> In this chapter, the numbers with hash in parenthesis refer to relevant classroom observation notes.

was placed in the front, on the window side. There was a smart-board on the front wall but it was not activated because of some technical issues. As a result, they used the green and white boards fixed on the wall and the projector attached to the ceiling. The teacher always brought his own laptop to use iTools, special software of the textbook (*Solutions*, OUP) in order to deliver the lessons. Overall, the physical layout of the classroom was very similar to Classroom B.1 (see Picture 7.1).

windows			<i>board</i>		<i>door</i>	
	<b>T</b>					
	B	G	G	B	B	
	B	B	G	B	B	
	B	G	B	B	B	<b>TT</b> <b>TT</b>
	G	G	<b>G</b>			<b>TT</b> <b>TT</b>
	B	B	B	B	X	<b>TT</b> <b>TT</b>

Figure 8.1. Physical layout of Classroom B.2

Before each classroom observation, I drew a rough sketch of seating arrangements on my notebook. Figure 8.1 shows the general layout of Classroom B.2; however, it should be noted that students sometimes changed their places before lessons. In the figure, the letter ‘*B*’ is used to show male students and ‘*G*’ is used to show female students. ‘*TT*’ shows where the teacher trainees usually sat and ‘*X*’ shows where I often sat during the classroom observations. The letters ‘**G**’ and ‘**B**’ in bold show two student interviewees selected in this classroom.

In accordance with the proficiency level of this classroom, *Solutions Türkiye A1* (OUP) was used as a main supplementary textbook in the classroom. In fact, the teacher delivered almost all of his lessons following the textbook software (iTools).

### **8.1.3. Data collection**

I observed Classroom B.2 between 04.12.2012 and 25.12.2012 (first phase) and between 19.02.2013 and 03.04.2013 (second phase). In total, I conducted fourteen classroom observations, ten of which were audio-recorded. I observed two sequential English lessons of the classroom on Tuesdays every week (in total, 25 lessons were observed). I always sat at the back of the classroom during my observations and took my notes on my notebook in English.

Semi-structured interviews were also conducted with the participants. Almost all of the interviews with students were carried out during the lunch breaks, which resulted in relatively short interview sessions. Except for the interview with the TTs, all of the interviews were audio-recorded with the permission of the participants. The details of interviews (e.g. numbers, duration and place) can be seen in Chapter 4.

### **8.1.4. Data analysis and findings**

In total there were around 260 codes developed inductively. It is worth reminding the reader that ‘categories’ were developed inductively through the *contextual coding* process. That is, emerging codes were developed and grouped around certain classroom incidents (e.g. a classroom task, a conversation between students and their teacher) as well as their relevance to each other. A specific illustration of this process from Classroom B.2 can be found in Appendix 8.1.

The themes selected to be presented and discussed in this chapter are: Teacher-prepared materials with varying responses (Section 8.2), unanticipated responses given by the students (Section 8.3) and procedural vs. personal outcomes in the classroom (Section 8.4). Each theme involves two separate but related sets of data

samples addressing relevant categories in the context of distinctive classroom incidents. These data samples were also coded to enable easy access for future reference. As mentioned in Chapter 4, the data presentation here is comprised of extracts from the textbook, field journal and interviews in order to provide triangulation of data methods and a rich contextualisation.

## 8.2. Teacher-prepared materials with varying responses

The first theme of this chapter address varying responses given by the teacher and students to the teacher-prepared materials and activities in the language classroom. Here, ‘teacher-preparedness’ refers to materials and activities prepared by a teacher to teach or introduce a particular topic to specific classrooms. During the data collection process, I observed that the teachers in School B (and especially in Classroom B.2) tended to rely on the textbook and its software (iTools) in their lessons. In fact, in Classroom B.2, the teacher-prepared inputs and tasks were only introduced by me and the teacher trainees (TT) when we delivered some of the lessons. Since I have already addressed my role as a researcher and a teacher in this study in Chapter 4, I will not recount this issue in the chapter.

As is mentioned before, the teachers and TTs were asked about ‘authenticity’ in the language classroom explicitly during the interviews. Faruk, the teacher, elaborated his view on the authenticity of materials used in the classroom and claimed that the materials that the language teachers prepared could be ‘authentic’ due to their potential ‘lesson-, topic- and classroom-specificity’ (turn 58).

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58	Faruk: I’m not sure how to explain authenticity... but if you’re asking regarding to materials, the ones we prepare can be authentic, because they’re rather lesson-specific. I mean like they’re prepared for particular classes,
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		particular lessons and such... and yes, we used to do this kind of things at the university, we prepared a lot of visuals, cardboards... but in practice, it isn't that efficient.
59	Erkan:	Why not?
60	Faruk:	It isn't easy. You have to prepare things in a limited time, prepare materials, visuals and find original things... They all take time. You need to be a teacher trainee, teach one day in a week then leave... If you're permanently here with several classrooms to teach and you keep preparing new things for each lesson, then the topic won't proceed. Maybe this is what we should do, that's the key... but what are we doing? We've been using the technology to provide visual aid for the last couple of years. Thanks to it, we can present the content in a better way, a more efficient way.
61	Erkan:	You mean [iTools] corresponds to the visuals and materials prepared by the teacher?
62	Faruk:	It does, to some extent, yes. iTools is very useful and engaging in this way. But we have some teachers who don't deliver the lessons in this way, some classes that don't utilise iTools effectively... I think in those classrooms, English isn't presented in an appealing way.

(Faruk, 130402)

Faruk's views on the teacher-prepared materials showed that such materials might potentially facilitate the process of authentication in the classroom as they were often prepared for particular classroom topics and students' profile born in mind. In this way, these materials could be considered appropriate and relevant to the particular culture of the classroom, pedagogical goals, topics and participants in that context. However, as a possible downside of these materials, Faruk claimed that preparing them could be time consuming for teachers. Here, he also mentioned that the teacher trainees could allocate more time and effort to materials preparation. Although he acknowledged the possible benefits of these materials, Faruk claimed that teachers might not address all of the topics that should be covered in a lesson if they wanted to prepare specific materials for each lesson (turn 60). He pointed out this issue because all of the 9<sup>th</sup> grades in this school had shared exams throughout the academic year and the teachers were expected to cover certain topics before each exam. Faruk claimed that although this practice might limit the teachers' autonomy in lesson preparation and delivery, it helped them to manage their progress and

compare all of the 9<sup>th</sup> grades with one another in terms of their success in the exam scores (Faruk, 130402, turns 42 – 46).

Finally, Faruk referred to iTools, special software prepared by the OUP to present the contents of *Solutions* textbooks with extra activities and in a relatively interactive way (e.g. videos, games and additional classroom tasks) and he listed advantages and practicality of using the technology in the lesson (turns 60 and 62). Indeed, Faruk preferred to replace ‘teacher-prepared materials’ with iTools as the latter was considered more practical and efficient. This theme, however, will not address iTools and its efficiency but the teacher-prepared materials presented in Classroom B.2.

In order to illustrate this theme through examples from specific classroom incidents, two samples were selected and labelled as TPMat#1 and TPMat#2. The first sample (TPMat#1) below is about a lesson in which I presented an activity about Turkish banknotes and students’ responses to the text used in this activity as well as the design of the activity in general. The second sample (TPMat#2) is about students’ engagement with and responses to an activity prepared by the TTs in a game format. Both of the lessons were designed to practise grammar items that had been introduced by the teacher in the previous lessons and both of them included teacher-prepared activities.

### **8.2.1. TPMat#1**

Although the teacher often asked me to follow the textbook content as he wanted particular sections or topics to be covered before the shared exams (e.g. #6, #9, #11, #13), I sometimes prepared activities outside the textbook content. The following



extracts were from a lesson I delivered as the teacher in which students were practicing the simple past tense (affirmative sentences).

I prepared the classroom task in this first sample (TPMat#1) as a supplementary one to Unit 7, one of the goals of which was stated as ‘talking about famous people’ in the textbook. The other goals were listed as ‘talking about people’s countries and nationalities, talking about past/historical events and understanding biographies of famous artists’ in the textbook. As a result, the task aimed to cover the pedagogical goals listed in the textbook and in the teacher’s annual lesson plan.

In the textbook, famous people from various nationalities and specialities were introduced throughout the unit such as James Dean, Florence Nightingale, Vladimir Lenin, Pablo Picasso, Nicolaus Copernicus and Caroline Herschel. Although the textbook was a ‘Türkiye’ edition (*Solutions Türkiye A1*), it did not involve any famous characters from Turkey in this unit. Therefore, I decided to design materials about famous people from Turkey and used the portraits on the Turkish notes. The main reason for using these portraits were that students might find them familiar, interesting (to talk about something relevant to their daily lives), useful (to practise the past simple while talking about some historical figures from the local context) and current (as the banknotes had been in circulation since 2009).

At the beginning of the lesson, I asked students if they had any notes and one of the students gave me 5 Turkish Lira (TL). First, we briefly talked about Atatürk’s life in English because all of the banknotes in Turkey had Atatürk portrait on the front. The back of the banknotes, however, featured portraits of different historical people. For

example, 5 TL had a portrait of Ord Prof Dr Aydın Sayılı (1913-1993), who was a famous professor in history of science. It also features a composition consisting of motifs like the solar system, atomic model, DNA and ancient cave paintings. I asked the students whether they knew anything about Aydın Sayılı or why his portrait might be put on the banknote. Only one student said that he must be ‘*an important person in science*’ because of the DNA and atomic model (#9). Then, I showed the portraits on the Turkish banknotes and asked students to share (1) which notes they featured on and (2) who they were.



Figure 8.2. The first four PPT slides of the activity

The students answered the first question easily as they could match the colours of portraits with the banknote colours. However, except for two portraits (i.e. Aydın Sayılı and Yunus Emre), they could not name the other portraits. Then, I showed the list of names and asked the students if they could recognise the names. Apparently three names were completely unfamiliar to the students (i.e. Mimar Kemaleddin, Cahit Arf and Fatma Aliye). After this, I showed the banknotes one by one, and

encouraged the students to talk about each portrait using the details on the banknotes (e.g. drawings and symbols).

Finally, I asked the students to complete the short paragraphs about these portraits using the correct forms of the given verbs. The paragraphs included biographic information of each person (e.g. *He \_\_\_\_\_ (study) architecture in Berlin; She \_\_\_\_\_ (die) in 1936*). The information given in the paragraphs were taken from the biographies prepared by the Central Bank to introduce these banknotes<sup>20</sup>. After students completed the paragraphs, they read them aloud and checked the answers.

During the activity, I observed that students were more interested in completing the sentences with the past form of the verbs than in talking about the people on the banknotes. In this sense, my initial thought was that the materials were not found engaging enough by the students and they did not promote a genuine speech situation where students could share personal stories or comments related to the topic (Research Diary, 19.03.2013). In the interview sessions with the students, I asked them to share their thoughts about the materials and the task presented in the lesson. When I shared my personal observation with Emir, for example, he confirmed that the activity had not seemed very appealing to students (turn 30). However, his first explanation was a broad one rather than a specific one to this lesson (turn 32).

29	Erkan:	// And in the second lesson, I presented an activity about people on the Turkish Lira. I thought it might be interesting but it seemed it didn't draw your attention much.
30	Emir:	No, it didn't.
31	Erkan:	Why not?
32	Emir:	It happens... I think English isn't very interesting in our class in general.

<sup>20</sup> <http://www.tcmb.gov.tr/tlkampanya/download/biographies.pdf> as retrieved on March 2013.

41	Erkan:	// And what do you think about that activity?
42	Emir:	To me, it wasn't very boring... but to be honest, not very entertaining either. It was OK at the beginning but it became a bit boring at the end.
43	Erkan:	The characters on the notes=
44	Emir:	=It wouldn't have been very different if we hadn't had that activity in the lesson. I don't think it added much to the lesson.

(Emir, 130319)

Emir frankly stated that the activity was not very appealing for the students especially when they were talking about the portraits on the banknotes in detail (turn 42). Moreover, according to him, the classroom task did not have a notable contribution to the lesson (turn 44). Apparently, although I had planned to present an interesting, useful and relevant activity in regard to pedagogical and daily life references (Research Diary, 19.03.2013), it was not found very relevant or necessary by the students. While Emir was commenting on the classroom task in general, Gizem commented on the portraits (i.e. materials) used in this lesson.

29	Erkan:	Do you remember the activity?
30	Gizem:	Yes, we also read short paragraphs about each person.
31	Erkan:	Yes. Would you prefer different people than the ones on the banknotes?
32	Gizem:	If you ask me, I would say some heavy metal musicians or rock musicians.
33	Erkan:	Who's on your mind?
34	Gizem:	Kurt Cobain? He's also dead.
35	Erkan:	I see. Yes, why not? And you can use a text about him to practise the past simple...
36	Gizem:	Yes. It would be nice.
37	Erkan:	Would it be more interesting for you?
38	Gizem:	Yes. I mean, it's different for everyone. For example that draws my attention, maybe the boys would find a football player more interesting. These things can be very individual. I think that activity was good, but I guess those people were not very appealing for us.

(Gizem, 130320)

Although Gizem had something of a positive response to the activity, she did not find the characters/portraits engaging enough (turn 38). She stated that she might personally prefer some heavy metal musicians such as Kurt Cobain, an American musician who is still one of the most 'iconic' rock musicians (turn 32). Here, she

also referred to individual preferences in terms of possible famous people that could be presented in the lesson (turn 38). This made it clear that the students' age group and preferences as well as their interests should have been taken into account more in the materials preparation. In fact, they should have been involved during the materials selection and preparation. Moreover, her individual comments on the materials and the task pointed out the different dimensions of authenticity and revealed a sort of interaction that students could have with the texts and tasks in the classroom, which are interwoven by nature but separate in respect of quality and impact.

Interestingly, although one may think that local famous faces could be more appealing for them, the students could be more concerned with other factors such as popularity or significance, especially within a particular age group. For example, when I asked if he preferred to see some famous Turkish characters in the theme of 'fame', Emir stated that *'It isn't that important whether they are Turkish or not. I think they should be just relevant to the topic and interesting. We're young; I mean they can choose people that would be interesting to us.'* (Emir, 130319, turn 26). An important factor here could be listed as addressing students' interests and their imaginary or ideal selves through characters with whom they could build a connection and/or in whom they could recognise themselves. This seems particularly significant for adolescents and their interaction with classroom materials and activities.

As a reflective note, it is also worth mentioning that students' relatively negative responses presented in the interview extracts above might have resulted from my

mood and how this reflected on the way I asked the questions in the interviews. As mentioned in Chapter 4, I believe that interviews are socially-constructed events in which we cannot ignore physical, emotional or linguistic details and influences.

While this first sample (TPMat#1) included extracts from a lesson delivered by me, the second sample of this theme (TPMat#2) will include a classroom task with materials prepared and presented by the teacher trainees to practise ‘there is/there are’, which had been already introduced through textbook activities by the teacher. It was in a ‘game’ format and it received relatively positive responses from the students.

### **8.2.2. TPMat#2**

This second sample (TPMat#2) is about a lesson delivered by the TTs. In the classroom, there were five TTs in the classroom and two of them (TT7 and TT8) presented a classroom task they had prepared. TT7 placed some cards on the whiteboard and TT8 introduced the ‘game’ to the students. The cards on the board were divided into two groups and students were asked to match them correctly. The TTs seemed to select the items randomly (e.g. solar system, British flag) and to use the American English in their spelling (although it was the British English that was emphasised in the textbook/iTools and by the teacher).

The United Kingdom	9 planets
Football team	50 states
A year	<del>26 letters</del>
British flag	4 nations
The United States	12 months
Olympic flag	4 seasons
A year	1000 meters
A kilometer	5 rings
Solar system	11 players
Alphabet	3 colors

(Classroom observation, **B.2#2**)

TT8 first gave the instructions verbally then she modelled the activity on the board by matching two cards and making a sentence with ‘there is/there are’.

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**TT:** For example, alphabet... and? 26 letters... So I can say ‘there are 26 letters in the alphabet’.

**S1:** Are there 26 letters in the alphabet? [TR]

**S2:** Which alphabet? [TR]

**TT:** English alphabet? Yes, there are 26 letters in the alphabet.

**S2:** English alphabet.

**S1:** How many letters do we have in Turkish alphabet? [TR]

**S3:** 29? [TR]

**S2:** 29 [TR]

**TT:** Yes, there are 29 letters in Turkish alphabet. Ok, now you can decide your group names.

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(Classroom observation, **B.2#2**)

Here, TT8 needed to clarify which alphabet was referred to in the sentence because some students got confused about the number of letters in the alphabet. Then they compared Turkish and English alphabets in terms of letter numbers. In other words, the students attempted to make sense of the given sentence rather than simply focusing on if it was grammatically correct or procedurally functional as a sample in the instructions.

After this, students were divided into two groups and they were asked to decide their group names. Then one student from each group in every turn stood up, matched

cards on the board and made a sentence with ‘there is/there are’. Although some students made grammar mistakes, it seemed that the students focused on matching the phrases meaningfully rather than making grammatically correct sentences with ‘there is/there are’. At one point, the teacher interrupted the activity and warned the students not to say ‘they are’ instead of ‘there are’, which was a common mistake made by some students (#2). Overall, the students seemed interested and engaged during the activity.

After the lesson, the teacher talked with the TTs and shared his thoughts about their materials and the classroom task. He especially appreciated the preparation (i.e. preparing the cards) and modelling the activity at the beginning. I also had a chance to have a brief talk with the TTs about their activity.

School B 11.12.2012	About the activity they presented in the lesson (there is/there are), one of the teacher trainees stated that the students had found the activity ‘interesting’ and they had seemed eager to participate because ‘ <i>students liked playing games in the lessons</i> ’. She also pointed out that although the students made some grammatical mistakes, she appreciated their effort to work with their classmates and to match the phrases meaningfully.
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(Field notes)

The TTs were satisfied with the students’ responses to the activity and they acknowledged their involvement and group work during the activity. One of the TTs also claimed that the students’ positive response might have resulted from the fact that the activity had been designed as a ‘game’ and students of this age group tended to like games. Here, the ‘game’ factor and its potentially motivating influence as well as working in groups to achieve a shared goal can be highlighted in the process of authentication, particularly by the students. Emir, for example, appreciated the task as an engaging game presented at the end of the lesson (turn 54).



51	Erkan:	Do you remember the activity you did with the teacher trainees? You matched some phrases with there is, there are.
52	Emir:	Yes. The one we did on the board?
53	Erkan:	Yes. How was it?
54	Emir:	It was good. Some of them weren't very easy to match, but I liked it. It was also good that we did that as a game at the end of the lesson.
55	Erkan:	What about the sentences? There were sentences like the United Kingdom – 4 nations... or the United States – 50 states... Did you find it relevant?
56	Emir:	Yes, it was good to improve our general knowledge. I found it interesting. It was a good activity to practise there is, there are. I think everyone enjoyed.

(Emir, 121219)

Emir found the activity both relevant and useful in terms of improving their general knowledge as well as their language use (turn 56). Although my first reaction was that the theme of the game and randomly selected sentences were unrelated to the main topic of the lesson (e.g. school subjects and parts of the house), the students liked the activity and found it enjoyable and relevant apparently because of the design the classroom task as a game, which promoted students' engagement. Here, it was observed that goal-oriented and entertaining group games in the classroom could indeed facilitate the process of authentication by the participants.

For this specific task, the teacher, Faruk, stated that it was well-prepared. While he was elaborating his response, he brought the topic of materials preparation back to iTools and its possible benefits (turn 28).

27	Erkan:	// And today the teacher trainees presented a game... practising there is, there are. They had prepared all those materials, cards in different colours and such. What do you think about that activity?
28	Faruk:	It was good and well-prepared. But we now have iTools!
29	Erkan:	You usually prefer using iTools and the extra activities there like games.
30	Faruk:	Yes. For that matter, I can understand my friends. At the university, they also taught this to us very well... but=
31	Erkan:	=I also remember we prepared lots of materials, we were cutting, pasting and drawing...
32	Faruk:	Yes, yes! We did it as well... it was very nice, very good...

		but using computers or projectors wasn't very common then. We didn't have iTools then, I mean we have iTools now! Students see everything there, interact with the content there... The aim is to provide visuals, to draw students' attention... right?
33	Erkan:	Yes.
34	Faruk:	So? Now iTools does that... It has everything necessary. So we haven't found it necessary to prepare such materials that much for the last couple of years.

(Faruk, 121211)

As in the interview extract presented at the introduction of this theme above, here Faruk questioned the efficiency of teacher-prepared materials (e.g. printed posters, cards and similar paperwork prepared by the teachers) with regard to their practical aspects such as the amount of time and effort a language teacher was expected to spend in materials development. To him, they had more opportunities to utilise technology in the classroom (e.g. a variety of special software with interactive contents and appealing visuals) than they used to have (turn 32). Moreover, Faruk claimed that iTools could provide the necessary input so it did not demand too much time and preparation of language teachers before the lessons (turn 34). Here, it is worth mentioning that using iTools for lesson preparation could provide possible contributions and benefits but it might result in an 'invisible ceiling' and limit the potential of the language teacher in materials development and activity preparation.

All in all, the activity presented by the TTs in a game format received positive responses by both the students and the teacher. The students especially considered the game as an enjoyable part of the lesson and validated it successfully.

### **8.2.3. Towards 'authentication'**

This theme addressed varying responses given by the teacher and students to the 'teacher-prepared' materials in the language lessons. After presenting the teacher's overall views on this kind of materials, their benefits and possible downsides

especially in terms of practical issues, I demonstrated two different classroom samples (TPMat#1 and TPMat#2). TPMat#1 showed that teacher-prepared input and tasks could receive relatively less positive responses by the students if their interests and personal involvement were overlooked in the task design. Although I, as the teacher, aimed to involve local references in the classroom task and promote students' engagement, I could not facilitate the students' authentication of the materials in particular. TPMat#2 included a classroom task prepared by the TTs in a game format and the students' positive responses to and validation of this activity. Although such activities could be considered 'mechanical' or primarily pedagogically-driven, working in groups to 'win the game' facilitated the students' authentication of the classroom task.

### **8.3. Unanticipated responses given by the students**

The second theme of this chapter addresses 'unanticipated' responses given by the students and the teacher's reaction to these responses. Here, 'unanticipated' refers to unexpected nature of utterances and it may have overlapping features with spontaneous responses (see Sections 5.4 and 6.4.2). However, although they could be observed as 'spontaneous' in the flow of the lesson, these responses were usually given intentionally, and sometimes in a transgressive way, which could indicate a possible discrepancy between the goals or acts of the students and the teacher.

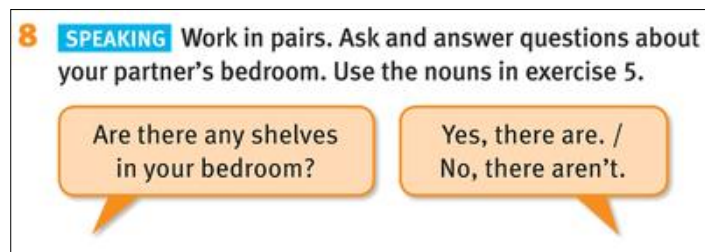
To illustrate and elaborate this theme, I will present two samples labelled as Anti#1 and Anti#2. The first sample below will present a student's unexpected response in order to criticise the 'pointlessness' of one of the questions. The second sample will also address an unanticipated response; however this time it was not the content of

the response but the language in which it was uttered that made this response unexpected (i.e. using L1).

### 8.3.1. Anti#1

This first sample (Anti#1) includes excerpts taken from the very first lesson I observed in Classroom B.2. In this lesson, after studying the vocabulary items about the school subjects, the students practised ‘there is/there are’ and ‘some/any with plural nouns’. The teacher followed the activities in the grammar section of Unit 3, the goal of which was stated as ‘I can describe what is in a room and where it is’.

After doing the related activities on ‘there is/there are’ and ‘a/an, some, any’ at the beginning of the grammar section, the students completed some questions with ‘is there a...’ or ‘are there any...’ in Exercise 5. All of the questions were about a room presented in this exercise (e.g. Is there a window? Are there any shelves?). When the students checked the answers, they practised the prepositions of place by matching the prepositions with the correct pictures (i.e. a blue ball around a yellow box). The students also they listened to and repeated these prepositions. Finally, in the speaking part, the teacher wanted the students to work in pairs and ask each other about their bedrooms.



(*Solutions Türkiye A1*, p.27)

The exercise explicitly encouraged the students to use the questions given in exercise 5. As a result, most of the students simply read these questions aloud and gave short

answers. However, when the teacher asked one of the pairs to share their dialogue, a short, but interesting conversation happened in the classroom.

T: Ok, let's listen to you.	S1: Are there any windows in your room?
	S2: No, there aren't any windows.
	S1: No? Where do you live? [TR]
T: Do you live a cave? [TR]	Ss: [laughing]
	S2: Of course not! [laughing]

(Classroom observation, **B.2#1**)

In the extract above S2's response was marked as 'unexpected' as bedrooms were supposed to have a window and S1 revealed this by posing a follow-up question in Turkish that was uttered in a humorous and surprising manner. This was also identified by the teacher who, again teasingly, asked whether S2 lived in a cave. The teacher's rhetorical question made other students laugh. In fact, S2 also laughed and rejected the teacher's implication. As seen in the extracts above, the incident was mainly shaped by S2's response which could be seen as an attempt to challenge a procedural classroom activity and revealed her criticism to producing a mechanical interaction in the classroom. Here, her demand for some sort of sense in the interaction also caused a tension with the teacher's intention to build a relatively formal and pedagogically-oriented dialogue in this classroom task. After the lesson, I had an interview with S2, Gizem, during which we talked about this dialogue and her 'unexpected' response in particular.

51	Erkan: Then you said something there, I found it interesting...
52	Gizem: Windows?
53	Erkan: Yes, yes! There was a dialogue about if there were any windows in your room and you said 'no', then they asked 'do you live in a cave' and they made...
54	Gizem: Yes [laughing]
55	Erkan: Why did you say that?
56	Gizem: No, I mean, a room without windows sounds... I mean every room has windows.
57	Erkan: So did you find the questions nonsensical?
58	Gizem: Yes! I meant it wasn't possible without windows.

59	Erkan:	I see. Does it usually happen in the classroom? For example a question with a very obvious answer is asked just for practice?
60	Gizem:	Yes, it does.
61	Erkan:	And you usually give these kinds of answers to nonsensical questions?
62	Gizem:	No, I did this in the lesson yesterday... I don't always do it or in the exams.

(Gizem, 121205)

Gizem stated that the reason why she had given the particular response above was that she had found the situation ‘nonsensical’ as rooms usually had windows (turns 56 and 58). Although Gizem did not explicitly use the word ‘nonsensical’ in her utterance, she approved it when I used this word in my question (i.e. ‘saçma’). I used this word in response to Gizem’s hesitation in turn 56. During the interview, I thought that she was going to use a word similar to ‘nonsensical/absurd/silly’ but she could not explicitly utter it possibly because she thought it would be rude to say it in the interview. It is worth noting that this was our first interview session with Gizem so the context was relatively more ‘formal’.

Gizem also confirmed that similar responses might be given when a situation given in a classroom task was found unnecessary or nonsensical by the students (turn 60). It can be claimed that this shows the students’ potential to take an active role and initiate the process of authentication by expressing their rejection or stance through such responses. It may be also seen as a transgressive act to challenge (1) a classmate’s or the teacher’s procedural engagement, (2) the purpose or design of a classroom task, or (3) the mechanical routine in the lesson. Gizem also mentioned that she would not act in the same way in the exam probably because the students’ answers became formal part of the assessment on the exam papers, which could affect their grades, thus limit their expressions. At the end, Gizem’s unanticipated response was her attempt at challenging and validating the activity. It is worth noting

that, Gizem's proficiency level in English was relatively higher than most of her classmates and this might enable her to express herself in English and reveal her agency through humorous and somewhat transgressive responses in the classroom. In fact, this point was also mentioned in our interview session with the teacher (Faruk, 130402).

As in this sample, the second sample of this theme (Anti#2) also addresses the unanticipated responses. The classroom incident presented below includes a dialogue between a student and the teacher, but this time the student's response was labelled as 'unanticipated' due to the use of L1 and the justification of this act.


### **8.3.2. Anti#2**

As mentioned before, this second sample (Anti#2) also includes a response given by a student. His response was considered as 'unanticipated' not in terms of the content but in terms of the language in which it was uttered (i.e. L1). Moreover, it was a possible discrepancy between the purpose of the task and the student's interpretation of it. In the lesson, the students were practising 'I'd like to...' and other useful phrases to order food and drink in the context of 'ordering in a café'. This topic was in the Everyday English section of Unit 5. The section started with a dialogue between a waitress/server and two young people ordering in a café.

After playing the dialogue twice on iTools, the teacher asked the volunteer students to read this dialogue aloud. While the students were reading it aloud, the teacher corrected their pronunciation mistakes. At this point, he got a bit upset and said '*we listened to the dialogue twice and you're still making mistakes... why didn't you pay*

*attention?*’ Then the teacher introduced the phrase of ‘would like to...’ and presented some activities on this.


In the dialogue, the prices were given as the pound sterling (GBP, £) and in the ‘pronunciation’ part, students were asked to listen to and repeat the prices in English. Although the United States Dollar (\$) and Euro (€) were relatively more commonly known foreign currencies in Turkey, the textbook authors preferred to use a context in England and GBP to introduce this topic. In fact, at the beginning, one of the students asked what ‘pound’ meant and the teacher explained it as ‘the British currency’.

**5**  **2.16 PRONUNCIATION** Read the *Look out!* box. Listen and repeat.

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**LOOK OUT!** Saying prices  
 £12 = *twelve pounds*  
 £8.50 = *eight pounds fifty or eight fifty*  
 £5.95 = *five pounds ninety-five or five ninety-five*

---

**6**  **2.17** Listen and write the prices.

1 <u>£6.50</u>	3 _____	5 _____	7 _____
2 _____	4 _____	6 _____	8 _____

(Solutions Türkiye A1, p.50)

In exercise 6, students listened to another set of prices and wrote them down on the textbook. When one of the students (S1) read the price aloud in the second item, another student (S2) objected to his answer. Even though S1’s answer was eventually correct, S2 claimed that he merely repeated what he heard on iTools.

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<p>T: Now, we’re going to listen and write down the prices. Are you ready?</p> <p>T: [playing the audio]</p> <p>T: Yes... two?</p>	<p>Ss: Yes</p>
<p>T: Say it again?</p>	<p>S1: Nineteen ninety-five.              S2: That has been already said [TR]              S1: No, this is the second one [TR]              S1: Nine ninety-five.</p>

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**T:** Yes. You said nineteen earlier. OK, nine ninety-five... Yes?

**T:** Why in Turkish?

**T:** And why do you say twenty three? [TR]

**T:** Say it in English too. The aim is to see if you can hear and write it down correctly [TR]. OK, next...

---

**S2:** Twenty-three [TR]... twenty-three.

**S2:** Because it's already said 'twenty three' [TR, the number in English]

**S2:** I said both... in Turkish and in English. The guy's already said it in English [TR].

(Classroom observation, **B.2#5**)

After confirming the correct answer in the second item (£9.95), the teacher asked S2 to give the answer for the third one. Although he was expected to say the price in English, S2 preferred to say it in Turkish first and repeat in English later. When the teacher asked why the answer was in Turkish, S2 explained that he wanted to say it both in Turkish and in English to show that he understood the number in the audio rather than simply repeating what he heard. Indeed, this explanation revealed why S2 had objected to S1 at the beginning. The teacher still insisted that he would prefer the answer in English because the aim of the activity was to practise understanding and saying the prices in the target language. Here, it can be claimed that while the teacher underlined the pedagogical purpose of the activity, S2 attempted to indicate the meaning as well and his objection to the semantic redundancy of repeating the same thing. His unanticipated response and the discrepancy emerged here indeed exemplified his act of authentication.

S2 in the extracts above was Emir, one of the interview participants from Classroom B.2, and in the interview after this lesson we talked about why he had given the answer in Turkish as well rather than only in English as expected.

53	Erkan:	Then you had an activity about prices... You did 'listen and repeat' first, then wrote down some prices like 20 pounds, 58 pounds and such... What was the aim of that activity do you think?
54	Emir:	To learn numbers?
55	Erkan:	Numbers?
56	Emir:	Numbers. But not ordinary numbers... like saying the numbers as prices, like the exact price, even the small fractions, so the aim was to learn the prices better, I think.
57	Erkan:	At one point, you said 'yirmi üç'.
58	Emir:	Yes.
59	Erkan:	Why did you say it in Turkish?
60	Emir:	Because in the audio, it says the English words so if I write it directly, it would be the same. I wrote twenty-three in number to show that I understood it.
61	Erkan:	I see, you wrote it as a number and say it in Turkish? Others repeated the prices like... it was fifty in the audio and they said fifty again.
62	Emir:	Yes... As I said, why should I repeat it? There is no need to repeat the same thing, I tried to show that I understood it.

(Emir, 130220)

Emir described the goal of the classroom task described above as practising how to say numbers in price form (turns 54 and 56). Moreover, he explained the reason why he had used Turkish in his response as to show he both captured the number in the audio track and understood which number it was (turns 60 and 62). According to him, saying the number in English only would be simply repeating the number without showing whether it was clear which number was that (turn 62). However, this response caused a discrepancy between the teacher's intention and Emir's interpretation. While it was enough for the teacher to elicit the correct answer in English only, Emir regarded this insufficient. As a result, his response was marked as unanticipated by the teacher and considered as an act of transgression, which indeed indicated an attempt of authentication, by Emir, of the vague purpose of a classroom task and possibly the conventional format of the practice in the lesson.

### **8.3.3. Towards ‘authentication’**

This theme addressed the unanticipated responses which could be considered as given in an ‘intentionally spontaneous’ way in the classroom through two classroom samples (Anti#1 and Anti#2). These responses unveiled potential discrepancies between the teacher’s intention that was usually pedagogically-oriented and the students’ interpretations. They often emerged through utterances that could be considered as playful and/or transgressive in the conventional flow of the lesson.

In Anti#1, a student’s unexpected response to criticise the ‘pointlessness’ of one of the questions was presented. In Anti#2 another unanticipated response was addressed; however this time it was unanticipated not mainly because of the content of the response but the language in which it was uttered. Both of the samples demonstrated the process of authentication in the classroom context in which the students could express themselves relatively frankly, indicate their justification in their own ways (e.g. via humour or L1) and challenge the presented situation.

### **8.4. Procedural vs. personal outcomes in the classroom**

As described in Chapter 6, procedural outcomes often result from collaborative but somewhat surface-level participation in the classroom. Although this kind of participation can be regarded as an indicator of ‘the accomplishment of a lesson’, it usually does not lead to deeper learning (Bloome et al., 1989). Personal outcomes, however, can be considered as students’ personalised and possibly genuine outputs in the classroom. These outcomes often include students’ personal experiences, views or wordings rather than simple repetitions of the samples provided by the teacher or the textbook. In this theme, I will present two classroom samples and they are labelled as ProP#1 and ProP#2.

The first sample in this theme (ProP#1) will demonstrate procedural outcomes by the students in a speaking activity. In this sample, the students provided very similar responses echoing the sample dialogue given in the textbook. On the other hand, the second sample (ProP#2) aims to present personal outcomes produced by the students in a writing activity.

It is worth noting that although the language classroom, by its very nature, incorporates both types of outcomes, personal outcomes are in a prominent position in the process of authentication as they can be seen as potential artefacts of the personal contribution and deeper engagement of the participants, thus of the genesis account of authenticity in language learning.

#### **8.4.1. ProP#1**

In Classroom B.2, some students tended to ‘repeat’ the same or very similar expressions given in the textbook as ‘samples’ when they were asked to make a dialogue in pairs or write a short piece in English. For example, they simply changed the proper nouns or specific information such as the dates in given samples and created their outputs in several lessons I observed (e.g. #3 – giving directions on the school map, #4 – describing clothes and #7 – asking for detailed information about a tourist attraction). In this first sample (ProP#1), I will address one particular classroom incident in which the students produced procedural outputs.

The extracts in this sample were from a lesson in which the students were practising the school subjects as a part of the vocabulary section of Unit 3. After matching the school subjects with the pictures provided, the students listened to the pronunciation

of each item and repeated them. Then the teacher asked the students to look at the speaking exercise.

**4 SPEAKING** Work in pairs. Ask and answer questions about which subjects you like and why. Use the phrases below.  
I love it. It's great. I really like it. It's all right.  
It's not bad. I quite like it. I'm not very keen on it.  
I can't stand it. I hate it. It's (quite) interesting.  
It's (quite) easy. It's (quite) boring. It's (quite) difficult.  

Do you like history?

It's all right. It's quite interesting.

(Solutions Türkiye A1, p.26)

In the exercise, the students were asked to work in pairs and ask and answer questions about the school subjects to practise the vocabulary items introduced in the previous sections. There were also a number of phrases for students to use in this activity. The aim of this part was stated as 'I can talk about my school subjects' in the textbook.

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**T:** Which of the school subjects do you study here? In this school?

**Ss:** Biology, English, geography, German, music, maths...

**T:** OK, work in pairs now. Ask your partners... which subjects do you like? And why?

**S1:** Do you like physics?

**S2:** No, I don't like physics

**S3:** Do you like geography?

**S4:** No, it is quite boring.

**S5:** Do you like history?

**S6:** It's not bad.

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(Classroom observation, **B.2#1**)

The teacher wanted the students to work in pairs and talk about which school subjects they liked and why. However, as I observed, none of the pairs addressed the 'why question' in their short dialogues. Instead, most of the pairs repeated a similar dialogue in their turns, which looked rather mechanical as they simply changed the

school subjects and chose an expression listed in the textbook rather than producing something personal. This situation was also acknowledged by the teacher during our brief talk about the lesson.

School B 04.12.2012	In the break time, I had a short talk with Faruk about my first observation. When I mentioned that the students had been simply 'reading aloud' or 'repeating' some phrases in the speaking activities rather than producing original dialogues, the teacher stated that he was aware of this situation. He said that he might not have encouraged students to talk longer in such activities because he had wanted to hear different students in the lesson. He pointed out that he usually preferred giving several students the opportunity to 'speak' in the classroom rather than having same, few students holding the floor in the lesson (he also mentioned 'the limited lesson hours' at this point and how this could prevent him from allocating more time to speaking activities).
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(Field notes)

Faruk, the teacher, was aware of the fact that students might be producing procedural outputs by simply repeating the expressions in the textbook rather than producing personal outputs in the speaking activities. He explained that if he had encouraged students to produce longer and more personal dialogues, then he could not have 'heard' several students in the classroom, thus could not have increased the classroom participation even if it was a procedural one. Here, he validated these procedural outcomes as pedagogical opportunities to 'hear' the students in the classroom. Gizem also pointed out that the dialogues in this classroom task sounded rather artificial (turn 132).

131	Erkan:	It sounded like most of you were reading the phrases aloud directly from the textbook... like 'do you like this', 'yes, I like it, no I don't like it' and such. How was [that activity]?
132	Gizem:	It was OK. It wasn't very natural but it was OK. Everything was already written in the textbook, we just added the lessons and read it directly. We even used the same words from the textbook. It might be better if we had done something not in the textbook.
133	Erkan:	What kind of thing? What could have been done, for instance?
134	Gizem:	For example... I don't know right now.

135	Erkan:	Something else but still related to school subjects?
136	Gizem:	Maybe, for example, we could've talked more about the lessons in our school. For example, s/he said 'I don't like it' but why? We could've talked about it more and explained why we liked or disliked that lesson. But we didn't.

(Gizem, 121205)

Gizem stated that it would have been better if students had elaborated their responses by including more personal comments such as why they liked or disliked particular school subjects (turns 132 and 136). Indeed, although the task gave the students a chance to produce a very short dialogue and share it in the classroom, their outcomes did not go beyond producing mechanical outputs. As a result, despite the teacher's comment on giving students a chance to 'speak', the outcomes might not be considered as an accomplishment of the classroom task that could be authenticated successfully by the students.

As mentioned before, the reason why the teacher approved such procedural outcomes in the lesson was to 'hear' different students in the classroom. However, if the students had been able to build a deeper and personal engagement with the task and reflected this on their outcomes, they could have produced genuine dialogues and validated the given task easily both at personal and pedagogical levels. Based on my observations, I can claim that the lack of personal engagement in Classroom B.2 could also result from the students' low level of language proficiency and their overall lack of interest in English lessons. This situation was especially observed in the speaking activities.

In the next sample of this theme, relatively 'personal' outcomes produced by the students will be illustrated. Unlike the first sample, which was about a speaking activity, the following one includes a 'writing' exercise in the classroom.

### 8.4.2. ProP#2

This second sample (ProP#2) includes the extracts from a lesson delivered by me. The teacher requested that I continue the lesson from the textbook after his lesson on the simple past tense. The textbook extract below was taken from the writing section of Unit 6, the aim of which was stated as ‘I can write different kinds of notes’.

First, I asked the students to read the notes given in the textbook and match them with the correct types of notes (e.g. a phone message, a thank-you note). After they matched the four types of notes, I asked them to read these notes again and underline the phrases used for starting particular types of messages. Finally, after they completed the sentences given in the textbook, I asked them to read the ‘writing strategy’ section and write a note using one of the situations listed in the textbook.

**4** Read the writing strategy and the situations below. Then choose two situations from different lists, and write two messages. Use phrases from exercises 2 and 3.  
**Phone message**  
1 Your mum phoned. Her train is late. Leave a message for your dad.  
2 Your brother's friend phoned. She's at the leisure centre. She's waiting for your brother. Her number is 786330. Leave a message for your brother.  
**Thank-you note**  
1 You received a ticket from a friend for a rock concert.  
2 You received a scarf for Christmas from your grandmother.  
**Message of sympathy**  
1 A friend failed his/her exams.  
2 A friend fell and has got a broken arm.  
**Message of congratulation**  
1 Your cousin was first in an important tennis tournament.  
2 A friend passed a music exam.

(Solutions Türkiye A1, p.59)

In this section, the textbook listed four different types of messages again and gave a pair of imaginary situations. There were eight different situations in total and although the instructions wanted the students to write ‘two messages’, I asked them



to write one message or work in pairs and write two messages together. Although in an ideal case, these situations would be considered as attempts at realistic situations, some of them apparently failed to provide authentic scenarios for the students. For instance, the second situation under ‘thank-you note’ was about receiving a scarf as a Christmas gift but Christmas was not regarded as a part of local culture and it was not observed by many in Turkey. Likewise, the first situation under ‘congratulation message’ was about a tennis tournament and although some students were interested in tennis, it was not very popular (compared to football, basketball or volleyball) among adolescents in Turkey, especially within the socio-economic profile of the students in this particular classroom. That is, some of these situations could be intrinsically difficult to be authenticated by the students in their daily context.

During the classroom task, I was walking around and answering the students’ questions, most of which were grammar-related ones. When they finished writing, the students read their messages aloud. Although some students wrote messages very similar to the ones given in the textbook (i.e. they simply changed the names and details in the notes), a few students surprised me and shared outputs that were personal and genuinely-produced.

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**T:** OK, any volunteers? Yes? Listen to your friend, please.

**S2:** Dear Esra, I was so sorry to hear that you aren’t well. I know it’s a bad ill and maybe you’re going to die. I’ll come and see you tomorrow, please don’t die before I come. Love. Your best friend.

**S3:** You’re going to die?

**S2:** Please, don’t die before I come!

**S4:** She says ‘don’t die before I arrive’  
[TR]

**T:** Nice. Yes Esra please don’t die. OK, next one?

**Ss:** [laugh]

**S5:** Dear Ozan, I love you... You know

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this. When I need help, you always help me. Your hand is my hand. Sorry for your hand, I hope that you feel better soon. Thank you so much my lovely friend. Bye.

---

(Classroom observation, **B.2#7**)

As seen in the previous sample, most students in Classroom B.2 tended to follow the textbook instructions closely and produce outputs very similar to the samples given in the textbook or by the teacher. However, here, S2 and S5 wrote original messages which addressed ‘real’ situations. Thus, I regarded these two outcomes as notable ones and I coded them as ‘personal’ in the data analysis.

S2’s note was a message of sympathy to her desk-mate, Esra, who was not feeling well at that moment. Likewise, S5 wrote a message of sympathy to his friend who got his finger caught in the classroom door during the break time. S5 showed his ‘empathy’ for his friend despite the fact that his expressions did not correspond closely with the samples given in the textbook. Although these two notes included some expressions that might not sound ‘natural’ in English (e.g. ‘your hand is my hand’) or grammar mistakes, both the purpose and sincerity of them made these notes ‘personal’ and ‘genuine’ in terms of their quality. Moreover, it can be also claimed that a successful process of authentication was achieved as the students could build a clear link between the classroom task and ‘real’ situations in the current context through their personal contributions. In our interview session, Emir shared his thoughts about this classroom sample.

69	Erkan:	Yesterday you also wrote some messages. Do you remember that activity?
70	Emir:	Messages? Like congratulation messages... Yes.
71	Erkan:	Yes, that one. Some of your friends wrote messages for their classmates, like Esra was sick and her desk-mate wrote a message of sympathy. I liked that they wrote it for their friends. What do you think about this?
72	Emir:	It was nice. Not everyone did that though. Most

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[students] read similar ones, they just repeated the ones in the textbook. But yes, some of them did differently, I liked it. It was interesting and I think it's more useful because it was for a real thing, I mean, it was more purposeful? I remember someone said 'don't die before I come', it was also funny.

---

(Emir, 130306)

Acknowledging that the students usually tended to produce outputs similar to the ones in the textbook, Emir found the personal outputs presented above interesting and useful as they addressed real issues in the context, which made them 'more purposeful' in his own words. Moreover, he remembered and repeated one of the sentences he found humorous (turn 72). This showed that the authentication of the given task by the students and that producing personal outcomes could indeed receive positive responses by other students in the classroom as well.

#### **8.4.3. Towards 'authentication'**

This theme aimed to describe, discuss and compare procedural and personal outcomes through two specific classroom samples (ProP#1 and ProP#2). As mentioned before, both types of the outcomes could be appreciated and required in the language classroom for different reasons. In ProP#1, procedural outcomes with students' mechanical responses were authenticated by the teacher as a pedagogical tool to 'hear' the students in the classroom. Such outcomes, however, found rather insufficient by some students as their functions could not go beyond doing the classroom task for the sake of moving on the lesson plan rather than for developing a deeper engagement with it or investing personal and genuine interest in it.

In ProP#2, a classroom task with students' personal outcomes was demonstrated. These outcomes were considered more meaningful and relevant to the students. As a

result, the students validated such outcomes in the lesson even though they did not correspond closely with the target language use in everyday life.

## 8.5. Summary

In this chapter, I presented three themes to discuss how the process of authentication by the students and the teacher was observed in the context of Classroom B.2.

Themes	Samples	
Teacher-prepared materials with varying responses	Talking about the portraits on the Turkish notes	TPMat#1
	A matching game to practise 'there is/there are'	TPMat#2
Unanticipated responses given by the students	Living in a cage	Anti#1
	Responding in Turkish	Anti#2
Procedural vs. personal outcomes in the classroom	Procedural outcomes in a speaking activity	ProP#1
	Personal outcomes in a writing activity	ProP#2

Table 8.1. Themes – Classroom B.1

In the first theme (Section 8.2), I addressed varied responses given by the participants to the teacher-prepared materials. In the first sample, I presented a lesson delivered by me as the teacher. Although my intention was to promote students' engagement through input texts related to local context, the students did not find these texts appealing. As a result, my lesson plan could not facilitate the process of authentication in this sample. The second sample was about a classroom task in a game format prepared by the teacher trainees. The task received positive responses by the students due to the fact that it was designed to foster students' involvement via group work and 'competition' format.

The second theme (Section 8.3) addressed unanticipated responses given by the students in two classroom samples. This theme shared some common features with

the previously presented themes on spontaneity (Section 5.4) and discrepancy (Section 6.3). In the first sample, a student gave an unexpected answer as a reaction to the mechanical and meaningless nature of the activity. In the second sample, another student's answer was marked as unanticipated because he gave the answer in Turkish to emphasise 'his interpretation' of the aim of the classroom task. In both samples, the process of authentication by the students became salient through their unanticipated, playful and somewhat transgressive responses.

Finally, in the third theme (8.4), I presented two classroom samples to compare procedural and personal outcomes by the students. By its very nature, language classroom context can provide conditions for both types of the outcomes to be validated for different reasons (e.g. pedagogical and/or communicative purposes). The first sample was about procedural outcomes and different responses to them given by the participants. The second sample included students' personalised outcomes in a writing task. It demonstrated that these outcomes received positive responses by the students and indeed indicated their authentication of the classroom task.

## CHAPTER 9

# DISCUSSION

### 9.0. Introduction

This chapter seeks to answer the research questions (RQ), which have been already presented in detail in Chapter 4 and are listed below. To this end, I will discuss the findings presented in the previous four chapters (Chapters 5, 6, 7 and 8) and elaborate them by synthesising the related ones from different units of analysis (i.e. classrooms). Moreover, I will interpret these findings in the light of the literature.

1. To what extent is the language learning and teaching experience authentic for the participants?
  - 1.a. How do learners and teachers construct an authentic experience in the English language classroom individually?
  - 1.b. How do learners and teachers interact to construct an authentic experience together?
2. What is the relationship between the context and the participants' experiences of language learning and teaching?
  - 2.a. What is the relationship between the context of 'language classroom' and the participants' classroom experiences?
  - 2.b. What is the relationship between wider contexts and the participants' classroom experiences?

The first question addresses the extent to which the process of authentication has been realised in the language classroom. Here, the students' and their teachers' acts and attempts to (co)construct an authentic language learning and teaching experience were investigated from a social constructivist point of view. The second question addresses the contextual factors and the extent to which the contexts (i.e. classroom context and broader contexts) might affect and be affected by the students' and the teachers' engagement in the process of authentication. Before addressing the relationship between the context(s) and authenticity (i.e. RQ#2) in Section 9.3, I will present 'authentication' as a process of validation by the students and their teachers and discuss the nature of this process (i.e. RQ#1) in Section 9.2.

The table below (Table 9.1) aims to provide a visual summary that groups the related samples from each unit of analysis in the same row with their broader 'key themes' emerging from a cross-case comparison. In the table, the first column includes the list of the seven key themes, which will be discussed in this chapter in detail. The other four columns show the units of analysis (i.e. classrooms) and they are listed according to their order of presentation in this thesis (i.e. Chapter 5, 6, 7 and 8).

Looking at the each row from left to right sets out the samples from which the key themes listed have been derived. Since I have presented each sample in detail in the previous chapters and will summarise and discuss them in the following sections, I insert only the sample codes and their brief descriptions (see Appendix 4.2) in the table. In the table, the **blue** sample codes indicate the primary samples that I will discuss in the following sections under each key theme (e.g. Spontaneity – Spon#1, Spon#2 and ProS#2). The **green** codes show the accompanying samples that are

related to the key themes they are listed with but considered as primary for another theme. For example, although I listed Daily#1 in Classroom B.1 as a related sample for Spontaneity and Personalisation, I will discuss it as one of the primary samples under the theme of Localisation.



Key themes	School A		School B	
	Classroom A.1	Classroom A.2	Classroom B.1	Classroom B.2
<i>Spontaneity</i>	<b>Spon#1</b> : Teacher's instantaneous responses <b>Spon#2</b> : Real responses to unreal situations (if clauses) <b>Recon#1</b>	<b>ProS#2</b> : Spontaneous conversations in the classroom (inventions) <b>Disc#2</b>	<b>Daily#1</b>	<b>Anti#1</b> , <b>Anti#2</b>
<i>Discrepancy</i>		<b>Disc#1</b> : Discrepancy of interpretation (TT's attempt) <b>Disc#2</b> : Discrepancy of interpretation (student's justification) <b>ProS#2</b>		<b>Anti#1</b> : Unanticipated responses (living in a cave?) <b>Anti#2</b> : Unanticipated responses (responding in Turkish) <b>ProP#2</b>
<i>Personalisation</i>	<b>Person#1</b> : Adding a personal touch (very short stories) <b>Person#2</b> : Adding a personal touch (writing a summary) <b>Spon#2</b>		<b>Daily#2</b> : Relating the topic to daily life <b>Imagi#2</b> : Creating an imaginary scenarios (acting out) <b>Daily#1</b>	
<i>Humour</i>	<b>Spon#1</b> , <b>Spon#2</b> <b>Spon#1</b>	<b>Disc#2</b>	<b>Imagi#1</b> , <b>Imagi#2</b> <b>Imagi#2</b>	<b>Anti#1</b>
<i>Didacticity (genesis)</i>		<b>CLang#2</b> : Language used in the classroom (passive voice) <b>ProS#1</b> : Procedural outcomes (speaking) <b>CLang#1</b> : News report in the textbook (natural disasters)		<b>TPMat#2</b> : Teacher-prepared materials (TT) <b>ProP#1</b> : Procedural outcomes (speaking) <b>TPMat#1</b>
<i>Didacticity (accommodation)</i>	<b>Recon#1</b> : Recontextualising non-pedagogical texts (reading) <b>Recon#2</b> : Recontextualising non-pedagogical texts (video) <b>Person#1</b> <b>Spon#2</b> <b>Recon#1</b>	<b>CLang#1</b>		
<i>Localisation</i>			<b>Cult#1</b> and <b>Cult#2</b> : Halloween and special occasions in local culture <b>Daily#1</b> : Relating the topic to daily life (school uniforms) <b>Imagi#1</b> : Creating imaginary scenarios (giving directions)	<b>TPMat#1</b> : Portraits on the Turkish notes <b>ProP#2</b> : Personal outcomes (writing)

Table 9.1. Key themes and classroom samples

As seen in Table 9.1, the three primary samples from Classrooms A.1 and A.2 constitute the theme of Spontaneity and the four samples from Classrooms A.2 and B.2 constitute Discrepancy. Four primary samples from Classrooms A.1 and B.1 are listed under the theme of Personalisation and another set of four from Classrooms A.2 and B.2 are listed under the theme of Didacticity (genesis). As for Didacticity (accommodation), three primary samples from Classrooms A.1 and A.2 are listed, and for Localisation six primary samples from Classrooms B.1 and B.2 are listed. Finally, six samples constitute the theme of Humour. Here, it is worth reminding the reader that the classification of the samples and formation of the key themes in Table 9.1 have been carried out according to the richness of the data collected in this study (e.g. observation notes, interview extracts) as well as my interpretation of them. As a result, it is possible to see some empty cells in the table. For instance, there is no sample code in the table for Discrepancy from Classroom B.1. This does not mean that discrepancy never took place in this classroom in any forms, but it implies that I did not record noticeable moments of discrepancy in this classroom during my observations or did not elicit rich information from the participants related to this theme. In sum, the table visually reports the findings by combining samples from different units of analysis in this study classified alongside their broader key themes.

This chapter includes sections that provide discussion of the related samples from different units of analysis, thus different cases. In this way, while the findings chapters are organised to provide more within-case accounts, this chapter aims to present across-case accounts and comparison. Hence, it synthesises and examines the key themes that emerged from the findings in different classrooms. It is worth reminding the reader that in this chapter, the related findings in each section are

referred through the ‘sample codes’ (e.g. Recon#1, Disc#2 or Anti#1) given for the samples presented in Chapters 5, 6, 7 and 8. A complete list of these codes and their specific page numbers can be found in Appendix 4.2.

### **9.1. Authenticity in the language classroom**

As highlighted in Chapter 2 and presented in the findings chapters (Chapters 5-8), authenticity in English language classrooms can be described as a context-bounded, multi-dimensional and dynamic process of interpretation, validation and (co)construction of a text, a task or a lesson in general. In line with the literature review and the themes that emerged from this study, the discussion of authenticity in the language classroom has been visualised through a diagram that is composed of three sets of components.

These three sets can be listed as (①) five components of the language education, which also form the model showing the dimensions of authenticity (see Chapter 3); (②) two conditions of the language use that have been referred to in the discussion of authenticity in ELT, and (③) two accounts of authenticity proposed by Cooper (1983). These three sets of components are illustrated as follows:

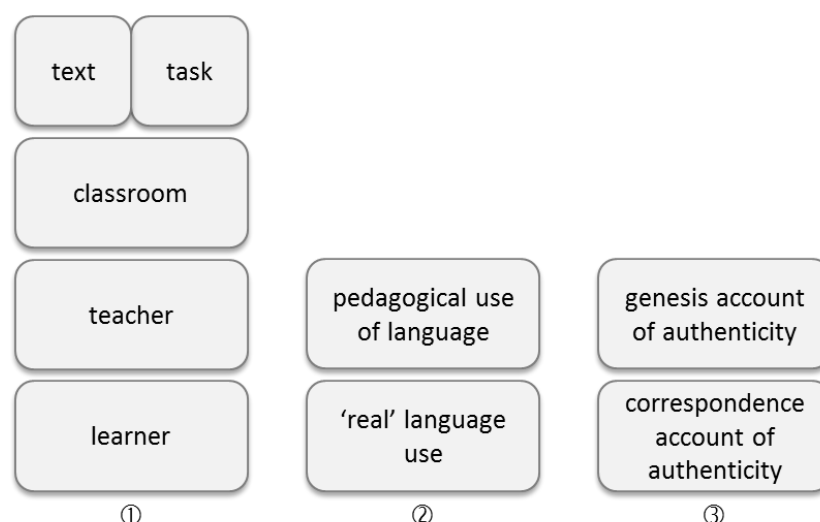


Figure 9.1. Components of the diagram

The first set (①) includes the four demands of authenticity (i.e. text, learner, task and classroom) listed by Breen (1985a). Although Breen (*ibid.*) introduces these four demands to language teachers, he did not explicitly include ‘teacher authenticity’ as one of the ‘types’ in his paper. In fact, it is possible to claim that teacher authenticity has not received the attention it deserves in the ELT research although the possible significance of language teachers’ authenticating efforts and strategies have been highlighted in the literature (Joy, 2011; White, 2006; van Lier, 1996). Therefore, the first set involves *teacher* as well as the other four aspects. The second set includes the two conditions that have been conventionally used to define ‘authenticity’ in the ELT literature such as texts and tasks with communicative purposes in the daily life vs. texts and tasks produced with pedagogical purposes in/for the classroom (Berardo, 2006; Gilmore, 2007; Nunan, 1989; Tomlinson, 1998). As similar comparison emerged in the findings of this study (e.g. ‘authentic’ language-use behaviour and ‘authentic’ language learning behaviour), these two conditions are included in the diagram and linked to the correspondence account. The correspondence account along with the genesis account forms the third set of the diagram.

These two accounts were highlighted by Cooper (1983) to point out two distinct references of authenticity in philosophy. The correspondence account often refers to a match or fitness of ‘a quality of realness’ based on specific contextual conditions while the genesis account refers to ‘a product of quality interactions’ in terms of origin and creation (Cooper, 1983; Tatsuki, 2006). MacDonald et al. (2006) claim that the fields of ELT and Applied Linguistics tend to attach themselves to only one account in the presentation and discussion of the term of authenticity and this is often the correspondence account (e.g. comparing the texts used in ‘real’ world with the ones used in the classroom). By connecting the genesis and correspondence accounts of authenticity, this diagram aims to illustrate ‘a more hybrid view of authenticity’ in the language classroom (see MacDonald et al., 2006).

In the light of the related literature (see Chapter 2) and the findings of this study (Chapters 5-8), these three sets have been organised as shown in Figure 9.2 below in order to emphasis the complexity of the process of authentication in the language classroom through possible links between different components.

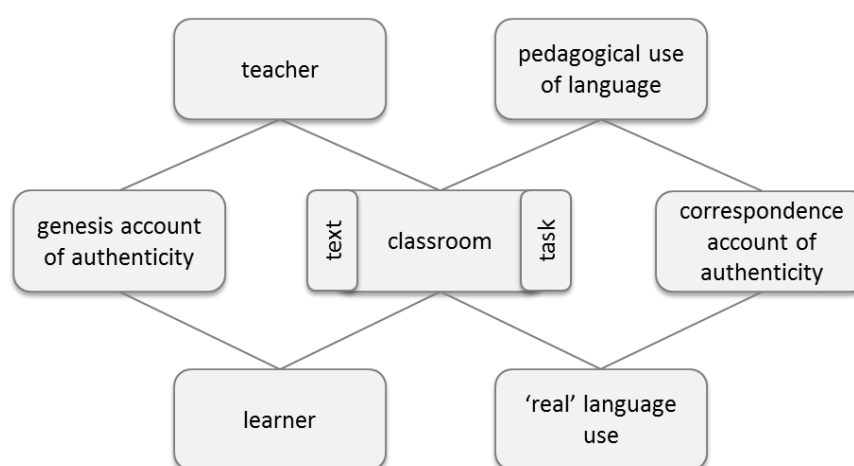


Figure 9.2. Components of the process of authentication

Due to the fact that the language classroom is the primary context of this research and the place where the texts and tasks are produced, presented or accommodated, *classroom* is placed in the very centre of this diagram as a contextual element and it is attached to *text* and *task*. In the diagram, the *genesis account of authenticity* is placed on the left side with *teacher* and *learner*. As van Lier (1996) highlights, authenticity can be considered as ‘a characteristic of the persons engaged in learning’ (p.125). Regarding *teacher* and *learner* as main actors in the classroom and addressing their genuine roles in specific lessons, this placement aims to illustrate the personal engagement and contribution of the participants in the process of authentication. The *correspondence account*, on the other hand, is placed on the right side of the diagram with *pedagogical use of language* and ‘*real*’ *language use* as the process or a certain part of this process (e.g. texts, classroom activities or the overall interaction between participants) can be discussed in terms of the extent to which it corresponds to specific conditions, functions and contextual purposes.

The linkages between these components have emerged differently through the themes presented in the findings chapters depending on the characteristics of the interaction and engagement in each sample. This will be demonstrated in the presentation and discussion of the following key themes through colour coding that represents whether it is possible to draw strong or weak relationships between these components in the context of each classroom sample. Unlike the linkages between other components, the ones between *teacher*, *learner* and *classroom* will be always shown in single lines referring to the strong link between these components. The reason for this is that regardless of the level of their engagement, both the teachers and students are situated in the classroom context and they co-construct the process

of language learning and teaching through their participation. Through colour coding, the diagram also helps to visualise how some of the samples from the same classroom or from different classrooms can be grouped or distinguished. Different colours that emerged in the diagrams indicate that classroom texts and interaction can be authenticated (or not authenticated) by the students and the teachers in terms of how they are framed within different conditions and accounts of authenticity. Specific features observed in the findings to describe the nature of linkages between the components can be seen in Appendix 4.3.

## **9.2. Authenticity and interaction**

As presented in detail in Chapter 2, the term ‘authenticity’ in English language education encompasses different dimensions, which can be listed as *text*, *task*, *learner*, *teacher* in the *language classroom* context. Empirical studies on authenticity in ELT have often focused on the first two of these aspects (i.e. text and task) or addressed learners’ responses to these two aspects. Especially after Widdowson (1979, 1983) made a distinction between the terms ‘genuineness’ (of the text) and ‘authenticity’ (of the process) and Lee (1995) identified ‘learner authenticity’ as the core of authenticity in ELT, scholars started to recognise authenticity as a process of making sense of texts and activities in the classroom context (see Abdul-Kareem, 1999; Shomossi & Ketabi, 2007; van Lier, 1996).

In this sense, this study adopts and elaborates van Lier’s process-oriented description of authenticity (1996). Overall, it aims to describe authenticity as an interactional process through which learners and teachers authenticate their experiences in the language classroom. The findings of this study showed that the process of authentication is in effect a personal and context-specific one.

The findings presented in the previous four chapters addressed the students' and their teacher's acts or attempts to authenticate the inputs, tasks and overall learning process in the classroom context. For example, Recon#2 (see 5.2), CLang#1 (see 6.2) and TPMat#1 (see 8.2) focused on participants' interaction with and responses to the text (as input) in the lesson. Likewise, Person#2 (see 5.2), Disc#1 (see 6.3) and Daily#1 (see 7.3) focused on their engagement in and validation of the classroom task. The main purpose of this section is to present both the students' and teachers' particular responses, acts and attempts during specific classroom events and to discuss them as the main characteristics of authentication that were observed in this study. Thus, this section aims to answer the first research question and its sub-questions.

The following four themes (i.e. Spontaneity, Discrepancy, Personalisation and Humour) address the constitutive elements of the interaction between different dimensions of the model presented in Chapter 3. Therefore, each theme can be considered as a feature of the interaction that takes place at the core of this model. It is worth emphasising that these themes are closely intertwined with each other, thus it is not always possible to draw clear and separating lines between them.

### **9.2.1. Spontaneity**

The findings of this study indicated that utterances or responses by the students and teachers that were given in an unplanned or precipitate way in response to particular classroom texts, activities or incidents in general could be considered as a part of the process of authentication in the language classroom. In this section, I will discuss the students' and teachers' spontaneous actions and utterances in specific classroom



incidents presented in the previous chapters (e.g. Spon#1, Spon#2 and ProS#2) and relate these findings to the existing literature.

The previous studies on spontaneity in the language classroom have been mostly conducted to explore and analyse the nature of spontaneous interaction in the target language (e.g. Christie, 2011, 2013; Hawkes, 2012). In this sense, the findings of this study expand the knowledge by revealing that ‘spontaneity’ can emerge as a means of authentication by the students and the teachers in the classroom context. This includes both spontaneous acts and language use through which approval or rejection of the relevance and appropriateness of texts and the interaction in the lesson is carried out (as in both personal and pedagogical levels). Although it is not related to the language education or applied linguistics, Fromm’s (1942) description of spontaneity below can show the potential link between authenticity and spontaneous outcomes in general, especially from an existential viewpoint:

Spontaneous activity is not compulsive activity ... it’s not the activity of the automaton, which is the uncritical adoption of patterns suggested from the outside. Spontaneous activity is free activity of the self and implies, psychologically, what the Latin root of the word, *sponte*, means literally: of one’s free will. (p.222)

As Fromm emphasises, spontaneity can be considered as ‘free activity of the self’ which results from one’s free will. In this sense, the teachers’ and students’ spontaneous actions in the classroom indicate signs of their actual volition in the context of the language lesson. In this study, spontaneous moments and actions were observed and coded in a number of classroom incidents through all of the four classrooms (see Sections 5.2, 5.4, 6.3, 6.4, 7.3 and 8.3). However, among these samples and themes, only two themes in two classrooms were labelled ‘spontaneous’ (see 5.4 and 6.4). The main reason for this was that spontaneous moments were more

salient in these themes than in the other ones. Although it was not called ‘spontaneous’ in the title, the theme on ‘unanticipated responses’ in Chapter 8 (see 8.3) is also related to spontaneity in the classroom.

Spontaneity in the lessons can carry specific pedagogical intentions while corresponding to the characteristics of the everyday language use (Jaekle, 1972), hence it has a relatively self-contained meaning in the language classroom (Christie, 2013; Seligson, 2005). Hawkes (2012) lists the overall features of spontaneous responses as being (1) not planned or controlled in form, (2) communicative and meaning-focused, and (3) responsive to other topics or speakers (p.51). Although the findings of this study endorsed these features, in some cases it was also possible to observe that spontaneous acts could be prompted with pedagogical intentions in particular rather than merely with communicative purposes (e.g. Spon#1 in Section 5.4). Furthermore, spontaneous talk between the teachers and students might not be closely related to the subject matter in the lesson and the findings of this study revealed that the teachers tended to move back to the main topic and continue the lesson plan after such spontaneous moments even if they started the episodes of spontaneity in the lesson. Thus, in some cases it was possible to talk about a ‘controlled spontaneity’ by the teacher. This also echoes Jaekle’s term ‘spontaneity with a purpose’ (1972).

Voluntary, unplanned and often unexpected reactions and responses by the students and the teachers were observed in all of the four classrooms. However, spontaneity appeared to emerge as a natural part of the teaching practice in Classroom A.1 in particular. This was mainly due to the teacher’s practice and flexibility that enabled

spontaneous adaptations to emerging conditions in her lessons. The teacher was not only being spontaneous but also encouraging spontaneity in the classroom (see Chapter 5). Here, the findings of this study supported the literature concerning the teacher's significant role to initiate, recognise and foster spontaneity in the classroom (Alter, 1971; Christie, 2011; Cole, 1987). Besides, the findings revealed that this role can be seen as something of teachers' 'authenticating' acts and efforts in the language classroom. In this sense, this study supports and widens the existing literature that emphasises the teacher's role in the process of fostering authenticity in the classroom as well (Joy, 2011, Shomoossi & Ketabi, 2007, 2008; van Lier, 1996).

As for the students, the findings also demonstrated that spontaneous acts and/or talk could be initiated or promoted by the students as an immediate response to each other's utterances or to emerging contextual situations and such acts and talk can be regarded as their authentication of the texts, tasks or the interaction in the classroom. Here, the findings extended the literature on 'learner authenticity' (Breen, 1985a, Lee, 1995, Taylor, 1994) by revealing that students' spontaneous responses or acts could be considered as a part of their interpretation and engagement through which they make sense of the text or the process in general and contextualise the topic in a somewhat personal way. The findings also support previous studies (e.g. Christie, 2013; Hawkes, 2012; Jagatic & Djigunovic, 2007) by revealing that spontaneous talk could foster students' engagement in the interactional practices and their autonomy in meaning-making process in communication, thus enhance the language learning process (Alter, 1971). Furthermore, the findings of this study also support Harris, Burch, Jones and Darcy's claim regarding the relationship between spontaneity and authenticity in the language classroom.

*Authentic* implied that the pupils really had *something to say*; not something they **had** to say but something they **wanted** to say. And leaving aside tasks such as presentations, *authentic* also implied that they would be speaking spontaneously, rather than repeating a well-rehearsed dialogue (2001, p.2, original emphasis).

Although spontaneous actions are often regarded as unplanned, immediate responses, an in-depth analysis can reveal that spontaneity in the classroom is a complex and personal ‘phenomenon of adaptation’ carried out by the participants (see Cole, 1987; 1989). In addition, recognition and co-construction of spontaneity by the participants can foster their involvement in the classroom context, thus their authentication of current classroom events. I will discuss the theme of spontaneity through three classroom samples presented in the findings.

Classroom	Classroom Sample	Sample Code	Section
Classroom A.1	Teacher’s instantaneous responses	<i>Spon#1</i>	5.4
	Real responses to unreal situations	<i>Spon#2</i>	5.4
Classroom A.2	Spontaneous conversations in the classroom	<i>ProS#2</i>	6.4

Table 9.2. Samples for Spontaneity

As mentioned before, spontaneous acts and utterances may, by their very nature, move the topic and the focus away from the main subject of the lesson. For example, in *Spon#2* (Classroom A.1), while studying the unreal present conditionals through the situations given by the teacher, the students gave personal, sincere and sometimes humorous responses, which changed, and indeed expanded, the initial subject matter (see 5.4). Likewise in Classroom A.2, the classroom incident described in *ProS#2* (see 6.4) demonstrated that the teacher and students moved away from the main topic (i.e. talking about the electronic devices given in the textbook) and developed a spontaneous conversation built on their personal

experiences and opinions (i.e. responsibilities and gender roles in household). Although it was mostly teacher-dominated, both the students and their teacher had an opportunity to share their personal opinions and stories in their own words. These two spontaneous episodes (Spon#2 and ProS#2) were not directly related to the primary design or content of the classroom tasks. For example, a student shared a personal story without using the target structure in Spon#2 and the teacher and students had a spontaneous conversation which did not follow the task instructions given in the textbook in ProS#2. As a result, there was a weak linkage between *pedagogical use of language* and the *correspondence account* in these two samples.

In Spon#1 (Classroom A.1), on the other hand, the classroom incident was initiated by the teacher as a spontaneous response to unforeseen conditions in the classroom (see 5.4). Although the underlying purpose was to introduce a grammar item (thus it was somewhat structured and form-focused), the incident developed spontaneously and connections between current contextual details and the lesson plan were built as a result of the teacher's adaptive actions. Being observant and flexible in the flow of the lesson and using translation from L1 to L2 in this process can be regarded as the teacher's strategy to authenticate the topic and to foster students' engagement in the lesson. The dialogue resulting from this spontaneous act also bore a resemblance to a dialogue that could actually happen in everyday life. This also received positive responses by the students. Moreover, unlike the other two samples, in Spon#1, it was possible to observe a clear correspondence between the spontaneous talk and the lesson plan; therefore, there was a strong linkage between *pedagogical use of language* and the *correspondence account of authenticity*.

In these three samples, the teachers personalised their questions rather than strictly following the lesson plan and they responded with spontaneous adaptive actions. Moreover, the students were able to engage in the dialogues and share their own examples, thus they co-constructed this spontaneity. As a result, strong linkages developed between *teacher*, *learner* and the *genesis account of authenticity*. Likewise, there were strong linkages between *teacher*, *learner* and *classroom* as well. Both the students and the teachers found spontaneous conversations beneficial and engaging in terms of improving speaking skills. Hence, the relationship between *pedagogical use of language* and *classroom* was also realised through a strong linkage in all three samples. The participants also found spontaneous moments and conversations similar to everyday language use in terms of their dialogic and emerging nature, and they regarded these spontaneous episodes and conversations both interactive and interpersonal in the classroom context. Thus, the linkages to *'real' language use* from both *classroom* and the *correspondence account of authenticity* were also strong.

A visualisation of these three samples can be seen in the diagram below (Figure 9.3). Here, single lines are used to show connections successfully developed in the given contexts while the dotted line refers to somewhat weak connections between two components. In the diagram below, the colour **red** is used for both Spon#2 (5.4) and ProS#2 (6.4) and the colour **blue** is used for Spon#1 (5.4). Black lines, on the other hand, are used to show the common features shared in all of the three samples.

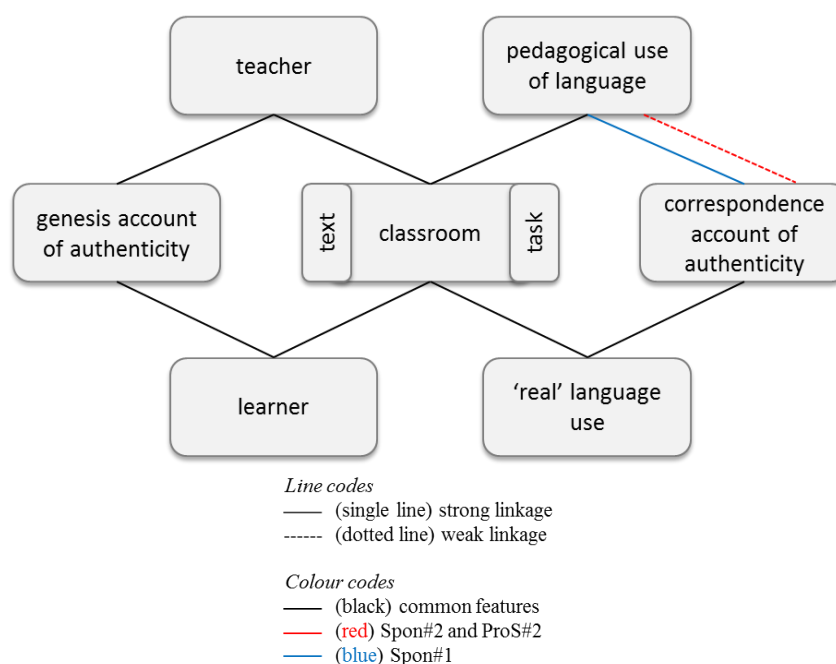


Figure 9.3. Visualisation of Spontaneity connections

All in all, spontaneity emerged as one of the defining characteristics of the process of authentication in the classrooms. Figure 9.3 shows the links between different components in order to illustrate how spontaneity was realised in the related findings.

### 9.2.2. Discrepancy

The findings of this study, especially the ones from Classrooms A.2 and B.2, revealed that the process of authentication by the students or the teachers could be detected more easily when a mismatch, or discrepancy, emerged between the teachers' intentions (or interpretations) and students' interpretations (or intentions) in the classrooms. Kumaravadivelu (1991) lists the ten possible sources of the mismatch between teacher intention and learner interpretation as 'cognitive, communicative, linguistic, pedagogic, strategic, cultural, evaluative, procedural, instructional and attitudinal' (p.101-105). Indeed, it is possible to claim that a classroom task, or a lesson in a broader sense, is not always about the same thing for

all of the participants in the classroom (Allwright, 1984; Allwright & Bailey, 1991). This may involve a potential tension in their search for validation or attempts to make sense of the given text or task in the classroom context. The process of authentication by the students and teachers can involve their endorsement or rejection of the prior utterances or acts depending on their individual intentions and interpretations (van Lier, 1996). In this study, it was also observed that a lack of alignment between participants' interpretations and acts usually emerged through spontaneous, unanticipated responses, particularly those given by the students.

The findings of this study extend the previous studies such as Kumaravadivelu (1991) and Tragant (1994) and they add to the current understanding by examining discrepancies in the context of authentication acts by the students and teachers. However, the focus and scope of this study distinguishes it from the previous studies in two ways: firstly, the existing literature and empirical research on discrepancy in the language classroom have mostly aimed to investigate the primary sources, types or the nature of discrepancies thoroughly at the level of overall learning and teaching experience such as mismatches between teaching and learning styles, strategies or between teachers' and students' expectations and beliefs related to language instruction (e.g. Gabillon, 2012; Kumaravadivelu, 1991; 2003; Oxford, Ehrman & Lavine, 1991; Peacock, 2001, Tragant, 1994). However, discrepancy emerged as one of the key findings in this study as a sign or attempt of authentication by the students and teachers. Hence, this study has not attempted to examine the possible specific sources of mismatches but rather to demonstrate the nature and outcomes of such mismatches in the classroom context and analyse them within the dynamic nature of authentication.



Secondly, related to the first aspect, the existing literature has often aimed at preventing or managing possible discrepancies (Andarab & Buyukyazi, 2013; Kumaravadivelu, 1991; 1994; 2003) or narrowing ‘the gap between learning and instruction’ (Nunan, 1995). In contradiction to these studies, I believe that raising awareness of possible discrepancies in the classroom context and investigating people’s actual responses to these discrepancies rather than simply seeking for ways to eliminate them could lead to a more productive argument to enhance the process of language learning and teaching. The findings of this study revealed that such discrepancies between participants, particularly when they are uttered and recognised in the lesson, can create unique learning and teaching opportunities. Therefore, they should not necessarily be considered as factors that strictly hinder the language learning process (Kumaravadivelu, 1991; 2003) especially when we see language lessons as ‘sets of learning opportunities, some deliberate but many incidental, all created through the necessary process of classroom interaction’ (Allwright, 1984, p.5). In this sense, the findings of this study are in line with Abdul-Kareem’s claim that tensions can stimulate negotiation of learning and conceptualisation of authenticity by the participants. The findings are also significant as they highlight that when the students and teachers acknowledge and enhance such opportunities to explain their intentions and express their interpretations, they are more likely to be able to authenticate their learning or teaching experience as well. This kind of interaction was observed in some of the samples presented in the previous chapters. In Classrooms A.2 and B.2, in particular, it was observed that the relationships between students and teachers within the specific classroom culture enabled both parties to articulate their disagreement or challenges explicitly. Four classroom samples will be discussed in detail and synthesised to illustrate this theme.

Classroom	Classroom Sample	Sample Code	Section
Classroom A.2	Discrepancy of interpretation (TT's attempt)	<i>Disc#1</i>	6.3
	Discrepancy of interpretation (student's justification)	<i>Disc#2</i>	6.3
Classroom B.2	Unanticipated responses (living in a cave?)	<i>Anti#1</i>	8.3
	Unanticipated responses (responding in Turkish)	<i>Anti#2</i>	8.3

Table 9.3. Samples for Discrepancy

In *Disc#1* (see 6.3), the teacher trainee in Classroom A.2 revised the design of the textbook task and asked students to write a news report on different natural disasters. Despite her attempt at authentication which aimed at encouraging students to produce more personalised outputs, the students followed the instructions in the textbook and most of them produced similar outputs. As a result, a discrepancy was observed between the purpose of the textbook task, the TT's intention and the students' acts. That is, despite the TT's attempt to remedy the task, most of the students followed the instructions in the textbook and wrote a news report about a tornado in Oklahoma, USA rather than a report on an imaginary or actual disaster they could choose. Therefore, the linkage between *learner* and the *genesis account* was a weak one in this sample. Moreover, although they apparently produced outputs in the form of 'news report', the students only used the information that was given in the textbook. Hence, they followed a procedural activity in the lesson. As a result, while it can be claimed that there was a strong linkage between the *correspondence account* and '*real*' language use (because of the 'news report' format), the linkage between *classroom* and '*real*' language use was a weak one (because it is arguable how 'realistic' and relevant it could be for students to write a news report on a tornado in the USA).

In another incident in Classroom A.2 which was labelled as Disc#2 in the findings (see 6.3), a discrepancy between the teacher's and students' interpretation of the sample sentence occurred. After the teacher recognised this mismatch, one of the students attempted to justify his interpretation in his own way (and in the L1). This resulted in a brief but genuine conversation between the participants with sincere and relatively humorous responses.

In Classroom B.2, on the other hand, the theme of discrepancy was addressed under the title of 'unanticipated responses' given by the participants. In Anti#1 (see 8.3), for example, a student gave an unexpected response to show that she found one of the questions to be not meaningful and realistic. In this incident, a discrepancy emerged as a reaction by this student to her classmate's trivial question, which was uttered in order to accomplish the given task. The teacher also acknowledged this reaction and posed a rhetorical question in a humorous way. Here, the student's act was regarded as an attempt at authentication through which she was challenging a procedural form-focused dialogue in a somewhat transgressive and humorous way. Likewise, in Anti#2 (also see 8.3), a student's unexpected response was considered as a sign of discrepancy. In this sample, however, the discrepancy became clear not because of the content of the response but because of the language it was uttered in (i.e. the student preferred to give the answer in L1 to show that he had the required information to accomplish the task in L1). Unlike in Disc#1, the outcomes in Disc#2, Anti#1 and Anti#2 resembled their counterparts in the everyday language use (i.e. students were able to communicate their interpretations and express their views in one way or another), thus attempting to create genuine opportunities to use the target language in the classroom. As a result, the linkages between the *correspondence*

*account*, *'real' language use* and *classroom* were observed to be strong in these three samples.

The teacher in all of the four samples, including the TT in Disc#1, made their interpretations clear and they recognised students' responses by asking for clarification or attempted to revise the task to establish relevance. Moreover, in all of the samples, the students could engage in the classroom tasks in one way or another. As a result, there were strong linkages between *learner*, *teacher* and *classroom* as well as between *teacher* and the *genesis account of authenticity*. Although there was a weak linkage between learner and the genesis account in Disc#1 as mentioned above, this linkage was strong in the other three samples (i.e. Disc#2, Anti#1 and Anti#2) as the students explicitly expressed their interpretations or they challenged the instruction (or the task) through their genuine responses. Thus, their personal contribution or attempts of authentication became somewhat visible in the flow of the lesson.

Furthermore, the linkage between *classroom* and *pedagogical use of language* was strong in all of the four samples since the students showed an awareness of the pedagogical purpose of the tasks and tried to use the target structures (e.g. conditional clause in Disc#1 or 'there is/there are' in Anti#1). However, the students' responses and interpretations indicated a relative conflict with the principal design of the tasks or signalled a potential tension between their acts and the teachers' main intention. Therefore, the linkage between the *correspondence account* and *pedagogical use of language* was relatively weak in all of the samples.

A visualisation of these four samples is presented in the diagram below (Figure 9.4). In the diagram, the single lines refer to connections successfully developed in the given contexts while the dotted lines are used to show somewhat weak connections between the components. Moreover, the colour **red** used for Disc#1 (6.3) and the colour **blue** is used for Disc#2 (6.3), Anti#1 and Anti#2 (8.3). Black lines, on the other hand, are used to show the common features shared in all of the four samples.

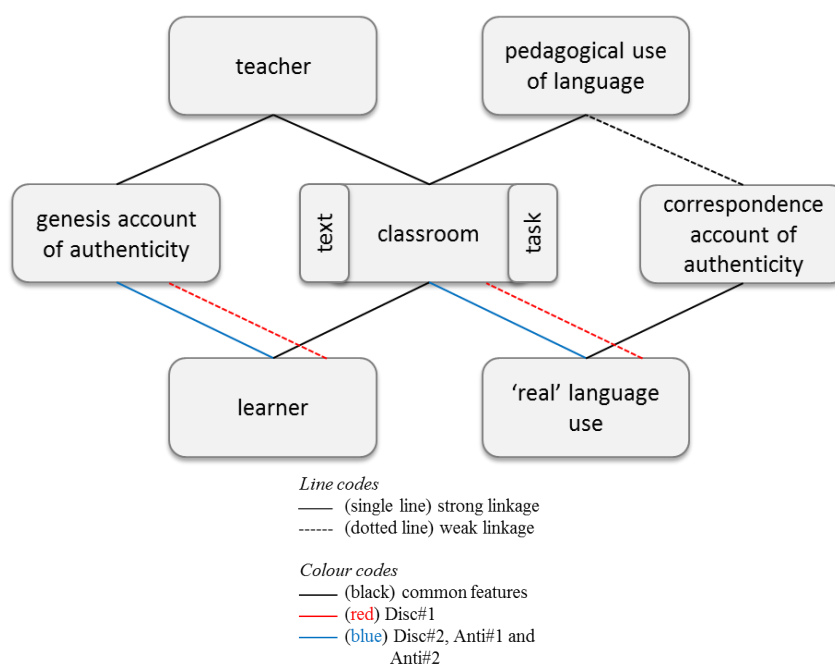


Figure 9.4. Visualisation of Discrepancy connections

In brief, Figure 9.4 shows that the process of authentication by the students and teachers can result in different linkages between the components during the moments of discrepancy in the lessons. At the end, this kind of process includes the teachers' and students' attempts to 'create, promote and sustain learning opportunities' through 'meaningful interaction and negotiation' (Kumaravadivelu, 1991).

### 9.2.3. Personalisation

In this study, personalisation emerged as one of the strategies applied by the teachers and/or students to create an authentic experience in the language classroom. The

term ‘personalisation’ here refers to the creation of learning opportunities to produce and promote personalised outputs which can be considered as genuine because they include participants’ own, individual and often original contribution and adaptations. In the findings, it was observed that personalisation, as an act of authentication, helped participants, especially the students, to make the texts or tasks more meaningful and relevant as it made the process more personal and included their individual experiences, values and stories, thus their ownership. In this sense, the findings of this study are in line with Holliday’s (2013) view on the connection between personalisation and authenticity.

[Teachers] need to know how to appreciate and manage the knowledge and experience which their students bring to the classroom, and how to allow space for authentic learning. They need to help their students bring their stories into English, and to help them connect the stories in their textbooks with their own stories (p.22).

Personalisation can include ‘adding a personally relevant dimension to otherwise impersonal textbook generated work’ (Griffiths & Keohane, 2000, p.1). The findings of this study indicated that through personalisation, the participants could facilitate the process of authentication as a shift from nomothetic to idiographic presentation. These two terms (i.e. nomothetic and idiographic, respectively) conventionally describe different approaches to knowledge as value ascribed to ‘knowledge of the general properties of reality’ vs. ‘knowledge of its concrete and unique properties’ (Windelband, 1980; Windelband & Oakes, 1980). In this study, however, nomothetic refers to general and often abstract matters (e.g. a reading text selected or produced by the textbook authors to appeal the wider audience in terms of its topic or design) while idiographic refers to more concrete and personal experience or points of reference (e.g. a student/teacher sharing individual opinions or examples from

his/her life, a text designed for a specific group of students). This kind of shift was particularly observed in the presentation of a coursebook text in the classrooms and considered as an act of authentication through personalisation (e.g. Sections 5.3 and 7.3).

Personalisation was observed in various incidents from all of the four classrooms where (1) the teacher provided his/her own story or opinion to exemplify or elaborate the topic (see ProS#2 in 6.4), (2) the teacher explicitly asked students to involve their personal comments and examples in their outputs or create outputs in their ‘own words’ (see Person#1 and Person#2 in 5.3, Daily#2 in 7.3) and (3) the students created genuine outputs with their personal contribution even if it was not a part of the task requirements (see Imagi#2 in 7.4, ProP#2 in 8.4). The findings also revealed that personalisation as a strategy for authentication was used mainly by the teachers in Classroom A.1 and B.1. To illustrate this theme, I will discuss and synthesise four classroom samples in this section.

Classroom	Classroom Sample	Sample Code	Section
Classroom A.1	Adding a personal touch (very short stories)	<i>Person#1</i>	5.3
	Adding a personal touch (writing a summary)	<i>Person#2</i>	5.3
Classroom B.1	Relating the topic to daily life	<i>Daily#2</i>	7.3
	Creating imaginary scenarios (acting out)	<i>Imagi#2</i>	7.4

Table 9.4. Samples for Personalisation

In Classroom B.1, the classroom incident described in Imagi#2 (see 7.4) was about the students’ act-out that included a humorous and genuine story created by the students. Instead of repeating the sample dialogue given in the textbook, the students decided to produce their own dialogue and created an imaginary context in the classroom. Although the teacher appreciated the students’ efforts and originality of

the story, she reminded the students that they should have used the target structure more frequently and explicitly in their output. This reminder demonstrated the teacher's normative position in the lesson. The students, however, seemed to neglect to focus on the target structure deliberately in order to make their act-out sound more natural and personal compared to the sample given in the textbook. As the lack of concurrence between students' output and the instructions was explicitly pointed out by the teacher and this point was also acknowledged by the students as their attempt to produce something different from the sample in the textbook, a weak linkage emerged between *classroom*, the *correspondence account* and *pedagogical use of language*. Moreover, as some of the students performed relatively 'amateurishly' and read their lines aloud rather than truly acting, the linkage between the *correspondence account* and '*real*' *language use* revealed as a weak one. However, the students claimed that their act-out sounded natural and original; therefore, it was possible to observe a strong linkage between *classroom* and '*real*' *language use*.

In Classroom B.1, the teacher usually shared examples from her daily life and aimed at eliciting personal views or stories from the students. For instance, in Daily#2 (see 7.3) the teacher went beyond the textbook task and explicitly encouraged students to make original sentences and she developed short dialogues with students in response to their sentences to practise the simple past tense. I regarded this as an authentication attempt by the teacher to contextualise the target grammar items in a more personal and meaningful way. Some students considered that the teacher's act was initiated merely with pedagogical motives (e.g. to practise past forms of the verbs) rather than with a genuine expression of interest. However, this classroom



incident was validated by most of the students as an opportunity to use the target structure in sentences and improve their speaking skills in English.

In Classroom A.1, personalisation emerged as act of authentication in two classroom samples as well. In Person#1 (see 5.3), I delivered a lesson the aim of which was to promote students' engagement and creativity. I presented seven very short stories and explicitly encouraged the students to produce original outputs based on these texts. The students worked together to produce their own outputs (e.g. story, act-out dialogue or a cartoon) in a rather autonomous way (e.g. choosing specific input and output options for their groups). This process received positive responses by the students particularly because it highlighted their personal contributions and ownership in the lesson. Likewise, in Person#2 (see 5.3) the students were expected to add their personal views and examples in the summaries they wrote. This was clearly initiated with the teacher's attempt to authenticate the task, which included a reading text from the course book as input. The teacher adapted the instructions given in the textbook in order to build connections between the text and students' daily lives in this incident and students gave positive responses to this since it became more relevant and personal at the end. It is worth reminding that both samples (Person#1 and Person#2) were from Classroom A.1 in which students were accustomed to involving personal comments or stories in their spoken or written outputs. As mentioned in Chapter 5, the teacher often encouraged this regardless of the type of input (e.g. from textbook or a video clip from a movie) and aimed at making the text more relevant for students in both personal and pedagogical levels. The teachers in all of the samples, including myself as a teacher in Person#1, encouraged and appreciated students' personal contributions and original outputs in

the classroom. Both the classroom observations and interview data revealed that making the content more meaningful and relevant for students through personalisation was considered as a validated strategy for authentication by the teachers to provide better language learning opportunities in these samples. Therefore, the linkages between the *genesis account of authenticity, teacher* and *classroom* emerged as strong ones. The students, on the other hand, often gave positive responses to these attempts and they personalised their outputs to some extent in order to produce something individual and different. As a result, there were also strong linkages between the *genesis account, learner* and *classroom* in all of the four samples.

The students found the process of personalisation, including the teachers' attempts and their own personal contributions, both useful and meaningful in the context of target language use. Therefore, there was a strong linkage between *classroom* and '*real*' language use in all of the samples. In Daily#2, Person#1 and Person#2 the participants were able to include their own opinions and stories (or the statements in 'their own words') in their texts, thus they could communicate somewhat 'real' information about themselves. As participants found this process similar to the language use outside the classroom that they should practise in the classroom, the linkage between '*real*' language use and the *correspondence account of authenticity* emerged as a strong one in these three samples. Moreover, unlike in Imagi#2, in these three samples the outcomes were consistent with the lesson plan (e.g. the teachers' instructions), thus there were strong linkages between the *correspondence account, pedagogical use of language* and *classroom* as well.

A visualisation of these four samples is presented in the diagram below (Figure 9.5). In the diagram, the single lines are used to show connections successfully developed in the given contexts while the dotted lines refer to somewhat weak connections between two components. Furthermore, the colour red is used for Imagi#2 (7.4) and the colour blue is used for Person#1, Person#2 (5.3) and Daily#2 (7.3). Black lines, on the other hand, are used to show the common features shared in all of the four samples.

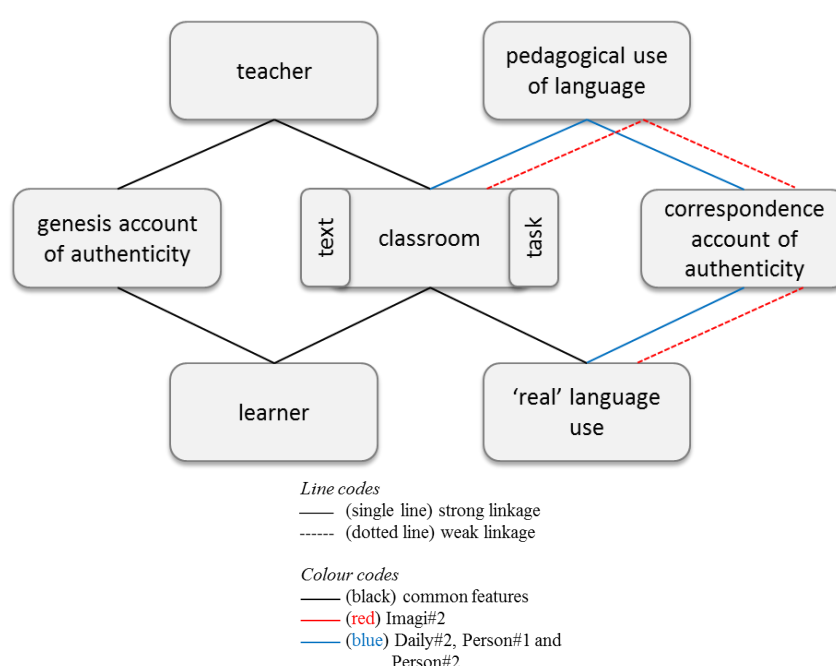


Figure 9.5. Visualisation of Personalisation connections

By its nature, personalisation is closely linked to learner and teacher dimensions of authenticity as it facilitates meaningfulness and relevance in the personal level. Developing personally meaningful content could also promote learners' involvement and motivation (Griffiths & Keohane, 2000). Figure 9.5 above shows the links between different components in order to illustrate how personalisation was observed in the related findings in this study.

#### **9.2.4. Humour**

Although it emerged in relatively short episodes, humour was observed in several classroom incidents in this study as one of the defining or supporting characteristics of the process of authentication by the students and the teachers. It was also possible to see humour as interwoven with some of the key themes in this study such as Spontaneity (see 9.2.1) and Discrepancy (9.2.2). In terms of spontaneity, for instance, Bryant, Comisky and Zillmann's study also shows that humour on the part of teachers is usually perceived to be spontaneous in the classroom (1979, p.116).

Here, humour is described in its broadest sense as 'anything done or said, purposefully or inadvertently, that is found to be comical or amusing' (Long & Graesser, 1988, p.37). In the literature, two main functions of humour in the language classroom have been listed as (1) reducing students' anxiety by creating a more comfortable and entertaining environment and (2) introducing or practising certain communicative and cultural aspects of the target language (Askildson, 2005; Bell, 2009; Medgyes, 2002; Trachtenberg, 1979; Wagner & Urios-Aparisi, 2008). In this regard, Wagner and Urios-Aparisi (2008) describe humour as 'a pedagogical tool as well as a content area' (p.226).

As described in Spon#1, Spon#2 (see 5.4), Disc#2 (see 6.3) and Anti#1 (see 8.3), spontaneous or instantaneous acts and utterances usually led to humorous outcomes through which students, and sometimes teachers, could express their ideas and opinions in an amusing way. Moreover, it was observed in these samples that the students and teachers could validate or challenge the classroom texts or tasks through their humorous responses. This is in line with the claim that humour can promote

students to use their abstract and creative thinking to produce personal and communicative responses in the lesson (Leong, 1980) and that the projection of humour can be consonant with the purpose of language use and teaching in terms of fostering ‘the ability of the students to project their personalities, to be themselves’ in the target language (Trachtenberg, 1979, p.89). For example, the students’ responses in Disc#2 (6.3) and Anti#1 (8.3) explicitly showed the process of authentication through their attempts at questioning and making sense of the current classroom task, thus articulating their views.

As mentioned before, previous research on humour in the language classroom has often focused on the employment and role of humour as a pedagogical instrument to practise linguistic or cultural components of the target language in the classroom context (Bell, 2009; Wagner & Urios-Aparisi, 2008). This study, however, did not aim to explore this kind of deliberate employment of humour in the language classroom for specific linguistic and pedagogical purposes. In other words, the aim of this study was not to investigate how humour was employed to practice specific language aspects or to promote specific communicative skills, but to illustrate the extent to which humour was realised in the process of authentication by the participants during the lessons. In this sense, humour was analysed within the general theme of authentication in the language classroom and not only humorous responses and language plays in the target language but also humorous comments in Turkish or funny incidents and nonverbal acts were considered as essential parts of this process. For example, in Spon#1 (see 5.4), an unexpected accident (i.e. a student’s desk fell accidentally) resulted in humorous comments and responses by both the teacher and other students and the teacher spontaneously included this

incident in the flow of the lesson. Likewise, in Imagi#1 (see 7.4), the classroom environment let a student share an entertaining anecdote in Turkish that was related to the topic in the lesson.

Spon#2 (see 5.4) in Classroom A.1 includes a clear connection between spontaneity and humour as well. Most of the responses given by the students were humorous, personal and genuine ones in this sample. In fact as Gilliland and Mauritsen (1971) underlines humour in classroom is ‘most effective when it is pertinent to the situation, personable, original and contains something of the personality of the teacher’ and the students (p.754).

In addition to the spontaneous practice of humour in the classroom, it was possible to observe intentional employment of humour in the classroom tasks, particularly by students. For example, as it was presented in Imagi#2 (see 7.4), the students in Classroom B.1 employed humour during their act-out and this received positive responses by both their classmates and their teacher. Likewise, the students in Classroom B.2 included sincere and humorous expressions in their ‘personalised’ outputs in ProP#2 (see 8.4).

The findings of this study also support and extend the existing literature on humour in language classrooms by indicating that along with its two primary functions highlighted in the literature, humour can be also part and parcel of the process of authentication by students and teachers. In this sense, the findings revealed that the teachers and students can use humour in validating or making sense of the content or the language in the classroom. For example, in Anti#1 (see 8.3), one of the students

challenged the routine of the classroom task by giving a humorous response that could be regarded as a rather transgressive one as well. Moreover, the teacher recognised this ‘unanticipated’ response and instantaneously continued the flow by making a humorous comment. The interaction between this student and the teacher illustrated the use of humour to express their genuine contributions and responses in the process of authentication.

It was observed that all of the teachers had the classroom environment in which humour was often employed and promoted. However, in Classrooms A.2 and B.2 in particular, the relationship between the teachers and students allowed them to express their views and questions by exchanging humorous comments and responses that usually included acts of challenging or teasing each other. For example, it was possible to observe these kinds of responses in Disc#2 (see 6.3) and Anti#1 (see 8.3). In Classroom B.2 humorous utterances often occurred in Turkish presumably due to students’ low level of language proficiency.

Here, it is worth noting that teachers’ acceptance of and attempts to create a classroom environment in which humour is recognised and promoted can facilitate the process of authentication. In fact, the findings of this study revealed that when this kind of classroom environment was created during the lesson, both the teachers and students could express their endorsements, rejections or justifications in their own ways. Moreover, this kind of environment created potential opportunities for lowering the affective filter (e.g. reducing students’ anxiety) and stimulating deeper engagement by acknowledging their personal, thus genuine, contributions. This supports the possible benefits and functions of humour in the classroom listed in the

pertinent literature (Bell, 2009; Askildson, 2005; Wagner & Urios-Aparisi, 2008). This is also in line with what Gilliland and Mauritsen (1971) call as ‘humanising effect’ that humour can have in the classroom setting (p.753).

### **9.3. Authenticity and context**

As highlighted in the previous sections, the process of authentication takes place in an interactional context co-constructed by the participants. As Puro and Bloome (1987) emphasise creating the interactional context includes ‘both the explicit and implicit messages teachers and students send each other through their words and their silences, their behaviours and their actions, and assigned tasks, among other means’ (p.27). In accord with this, ‘authenticity’ is a context-bounded phenomenon and it should not be defined in a vacuum as ‘its defining characteristics lie in the context of teaching’ (Shomoossi and Ketabi, 2007, p.152). This section will address the second main research question of this study, which aims at exploring the relationship between the context(s) and the participants’ experience of language learning and teaching. Context, here, encompasses the physical, social and cultural environments and relationships that ‘emerge in interactions made meaningful by contextual demands of the practice’ (Hung & Chen, 2007, p.153). In this study, two broad levels of context have been identified within the social situation of language learning environment. These levels are (1) classroom context and (2) (inter)national context. Although these two levels are explicitly addressed in the following subsections, it is also possible to acknowledge the contextual factors in other levels such as institutional (e.g. school environment, curriculum) and local (e.g. urban or rural areas) ones. In fact, the boundaries between these levels are rather permeable, which enables them to influence and get influenced by each other easily.



In general, the specific samples and the themes presented through the findings of this study provided classroom-based data supporting the claim that the social context of the classroom and the ‘social forces’ in and around it shape ‘what is available to be learned and the interaction of individual mind with external linguistic or communicative knowledge’ (Breen, 1985b, p.139). Furthermore, the findings of this study revealed that ‘context’ is not a static entity. The process of authentication by the participants is influenced by the special demands and characteristics of context and it concurrently shapes the conditions that form the context. In this sense, the findings are in line with Ushioda’s claim that context or culture is not ‘a stable independent variable, outside the individual’ (2009, p.218).

Considering the literature on authenticity and classroom as well as on authenticity and culture, I adopted the concepts of small culture and large culture (Holliday, 1999). Here, I addressed the pedagogical and interactional conventions in language classroom context (i.e. small culture) and cultural references within the local and international context (i.e. large culture). The following three themes (i.e. Didacticity: Genesis, Didacticity: Accommodation and Localisation) address the mutually constitutive relationship between the contextual elements and the interaction between different dimensions of authenticity. These themes are also closely interrelated with each other and with the previous key themes discussed in the previous sections.

### **9.3.1. Didacticity (Genesis)**

In this study, the term ‘didacticity’ refers to using or designing a text the primary aim of which is to convey instruction in the classroom context. It also includes

highlighting the instructional intention and pedagogical contextualisation in both the content and presentation of the text. The findings of this study showed that didacticity in language classrooms could be discussed in two ways at the very least: (1) genesis and (2) accommodation. While the former is addressed in this section, the latter will be presented in the following section (see 9.3.2).

Didacticity (genesis) emerged as one of the key themes in this study to describe the validation of certain texts and activities exclusively produced in and/or for the language classroom. As is highlighted in the literature review, language classrooms can be considered as the legitimate point of origin of specific type of interaction and behaviour due to its special contextual features (Breen 1985a; MacDonald et al., 2006; Taylor, 1994; van Lier, 1988; 1996). Despite Widdowson's (1990) caution against considering 'anything that goes on in the classroom, including mechanistic pattern practice' as 'authentic' simply because it occurs in the classroom context, the findings of this study are more in line with van Lier's argument quoted below (Cots & Tuson, 1994)

[the classroom] ought to have its own pedagogical naturalness, which does not have to be the same naturalness as the bar down the street, or the discotheque or the beach, or wherever else people might use language. (p.53)

In this sense, the context of language classrooms with specific pedagogical and communicative goals provides the conditions for authenticity and appropriateness of the texts and interaction, thus for the origin or mode of formation of these. This is why the label 'genesis' is attached to 'didacticity' in this part. The findings revealed that both the students and teachers often took the pedagogical design and purpose of the language classroom into consideration during their attempt at validating and

making sense of the texts and tasks produced in the classroom context. The findings also supported that ‘what goes on in the language classroom’ should be assessed against appropriateness and relevance of the social and individual functions within the process of language learning (Breen, 1985a; Kramsch, 1993; Taylor, 1994). Tudor (2001) addresses this issue through ‘situation-internal authenticity’ of the language classroom (p.94) and states that ‘the learning procedures involved may not be ‘meaningful-oriented’ in the communicative sense, but they can well be ‘meaningful’ as part of the learning process’ (p.95). Likewise, the process of authentication by the participants was usually guided by their perception of ‘pedagogical usefulness’ along with their perception of meaningfulness both inside and outside the classroom. This was demonstrated in the samples about the procedural outcomes and teachers’ normative intention in Classrooms A.2, B.1 and B.2 in particular (see Sections 6.4, 7.4 and 8.4).

Procedural outcomes were observed as output of ‘procedural display’, which can be listed as one form of didacticity (genesis) in the context of language lessons. As mentioned in Section 6.4, procedural display can be described as ‘cooperative display’ by the students and their teacher ‘of a set of academic and interactional procedures that themselves count as the accomplishment of a lesson’ (Bloome et al., 1989, p.272). This term has been often used to indicate students’ and teachers’ procedural and somewhat superficial engagement in the lesson rather than their personal and deeper commitment in the learning and teaching process. Because of this reason, it has been usually associated with ‘inauthentic’ language learning experience in the classroom. The findings of this study are significant for the literature on the procedural display in the language classroom in two ways: Firstly,

the findings have expanded the current understanding of this phenomenon by presenting actual classroom-based evidence (observations accompanied by interviews with the participants). Secondly, and more importantly, the findings revealed that procedural acts by students and their teachers and possible outcomes of these acts might not always result in an inauthentic learning and teaching experience in the classroom. Indeed, the interviews showed that although such outcomes were not always found meaningful, they could be found relevant and useful by some of the participants. By investigating procedural display within the process of authentication, this study also highlights that authenticity is indeed a complex and context-specific process rather than inherent quality of texts and tasks that can be simply graded via a checklist with two ends (i.e. authentic vs. inauthentic).

The findings related to this theme are also notable for demonstrating that the teachers can feature their normative roles during their attempts of accentuating the pedagogical purposes by revising or justifying the language (e.g. text) or particular activities in the classroom context. The related findings in this study (see 6.2, 7.4 and 8.4) showed that the teachers could act in the interest of the subject matter while they cared for the students and themselves within their institutional identities as well. In this sense, the findings are in line with ‘teacher authenticity’ described by Kreber et al. (2007).

Didacticity (genesis) and procedural display were observed in different samples presented in the previous chapters. I will illustrate and discuss this theme through four classroom samples listed below.

Classroom	Classroom Sample	Sample Code	Section
Classroom A.2	Language used in the classroom	<i>CLang#2</i>	6.2
	Procedural outcomes	<i>ProS#1</i>	6.4
Classroom B.2	Teacher-prepared materials (TT)	<i>TPMat#2</i>	8.2
	Procedural outcomes (speaking)	<i>ProP#1</i>	8.4

Table 9.5. Samples for Didacticity (Genesis)

In ProS#1 (Classroom A.2), the students were expected to work in pairs and produce their own dialogues as a part of a speaking activity (see 6.4). However, most of the students revised the sample dialogue given in the textbook and produced very similar outcomes (i.e. booking a ticket for a movie). Here, the students executed a procedural display to accomplish the task without even attempting to produce an original outcome. They acknowledged the pedagogical origins and functions of such procedural acts; however, they pointed out the lack of correspondence between outcomes of these acts and their counterparts in daily communication. In this sample, the students simply repeated the input they had been provided with and provided procedural outcomes rather than producing original outputs through their personal engagement and contribution. Moreover, the teacher did not appear to put her own choice into practice while delivering the classroom tasks. For example, the interview data revealed that the teacher in ProS#1 preferred modifying the textbook task or introduce a new topic when she realised students found the text artificial or monotonous. However, in this sample, she did not adjust the flow of the lesson and simply carried out the task and continued the lesson plan regardless of students' procedural participation and outcomes. As a result, in these contexts, there were weak linkages between *teacher*, *learner* and the *genesis account of authenticity*.

CLang#2 in Classroom A.2 (see 6.2) and ProP#1 in Classroom B.2 (see 8.4) also include incidents where the participants' particular acts and intentions can be discussed in terms of authenticity and their origins within the classroom context. In

CLang#2 (see 6.2), for example, the students practised the interrogative form in the passive voice through a list of sentences written by the teacher. While the students were rewriting the sentences in the passive voice, they found some of these sentences very form-focused and artificial (e.g. *Can she make a cake? – Can a cake be made?*). When the students asked for clarification, the teacher also recognised this situation and stated that the sentences were written for pedagogical purposes only so they were not necessarily meaningful. While the teacher and one of the student participants validated these sentences useful and appropriate within this specific context, the other student participant preferred more meaningful sentences with the target grammar. Such varying responses from the participants, in fact, supported the view that the process of authentication could be a personal and relative matter in the classroom context (Badger, 2011; Breen, 1985a). In ProP#1 in Classroom B.2, on the other hand, the students were asked to make short dialogues about the school subjects to practise new vocabulary items in a speaking task and although some of these dialogues were found relatively artificial and procedural by the students, they were accepted and indeed promoted by the teacher in order to increase the number of students participating in the lesson (see 8.4). The students in these two samples (CLang#2 and ProP#1) did not produce any original or personal outputs reflecting their own choices or contributions. Hence, there was a weak linkage between *learner* and the *genesis account of authenticity*. However, in both of the samples, the teachers, of their own volition and normative role, validated and focused on the pedagogical considerations (e.g. emphasising particular target language structures). As a result, unlike the previous two samples, these two samples had a strong linkage between *teacher* and the *genesis account*.

Finally, in TPMat#2 (see 8.2), the TTs aimed to foster students' motivation and engagement through group work and they presented an activity in a game format. Both the teacher, who observed this lesson, and the students gave positive responses to this activity and validated it in the classroom context. The task required students to match the given phrases so that their sentences could be both grammatically and meaningfully correct. Although this kind of matching activities are very common in language classrooms, they are classically labelled as 'mechanical' or rather 'inauthentic' especially when students are asked to work individually or when these activities is presented in a decontextualized way. However, in this sample the students not only worked in groups but also aimed to 'win' in the 'game' format. Students found this process very enjoyable and engaging. In this sample, the TTs presented the classroom task they designed autonomously for the lesson and since they had the opportunity to select the text and design the task according to their choices and preferences, the connection between *teacher* and the *genesis account of authenticity* was a strong one. However, as in the previous four samples, the students did not produce original and personal outcomes but only matched the given phrases, which resulted in a weak linkage between *learner* and the *genesis account*.

In addition to these distinguishing features of the each sample described above, all of the samples shared some common features. For example, it was observed that both the students and the teachers, including the TTs in TPMat#2, were in an engaging interaction between each other through the texts and classroom tasks presented in the lessons. Therefore, the linkages between *teacher*, *learner* and *classroom* were strong in all of the samples. Furthermore, the process in the lesson appeared to correspond closely to what the task instructions required. Therefore, there was a strong link

between the *correspondence account of authenticity* and *pedagogical use of language* for all of the samples. In this sense, the texts and tasks used in the classrooms were validated in the instructional level. However, the connection between *pedagogical use* and *classroom* was a weak one for all of the samples except for TPMat#2 because of the fact that even if the participants carried the classroom tasks and produced their outputs as the instructions required, they were not deeply engaged in the substantive goal of these tasks, thus could not go beyond a procedural display as described above. In TPMat#2, the students seemed to engage well with the pedagogical task through the game prepared by the teacher trainees. As a result, the link between *pedagogical use* and *classroom* was strong in this sample.

In all of the samples, there was a weak linkage between the *correspondence account of authenticity* and '*real*' *language use* as the participants emphasised the lack of correspondence between the language used outside the classroom and the process of simply following the sample texts given in the book and producing similar, mainly mechanical, outputs. Moreover, the students found the outputs produced in ProS#1, CLang#2 and ProP#1 rather artificial or sometimes unnecessary. As a result, there was a weak linkage between '*real*' *language use* and *classroom* in these three samples as well. However, in TMat#2, the students gave positive responses to the game format and working in groups and they considered the task an enjoyable way of using the target language. Thus, the connection between *classroom* and '*real*' *language use* was strong in this specific sample.



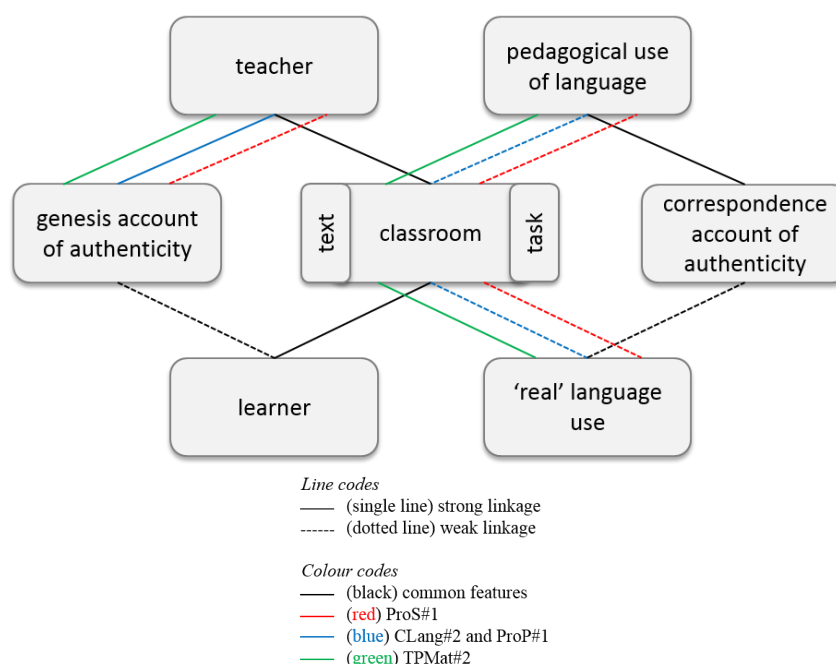


Figure 9.6. Visualisation of Didacticity (Genesis) connections

A visualisation of these four samples is presented in the diagram above (Figure 9.6). In the diagram, the single lines refer to connections successfully developed in the given contexts while the dotted lines are used to show somewhat weak connections between the components. Moreover, the colour **red** is for ProS#1 (6.4), the colour **blue** is used for CLang#2 (6.2) and ProP#1 (8.4) and **green** is used for TPMat#2 (8.2). Black lines, on the other hand, are used to show the common features shared in all of the five samples. Overall, Figure 9.6 aims to show that the authenticity of the classroom texts and activities is constructed in a highly individual and context-oriented way. Here, the process of authentication includes the participants' validation and meaning-making of the texts and interactions in the classroom context.

### 9.3.2. Didacticity (Accommodation)

The previous section has discussed the 'genesis' form of didacticity and focused on the texts and tasks specifically produced in and/or for the language classroom. This section will address the 'accommodation' form of didacticity in the language

classroom. Here, the term ‘accommodation’ refers to the recontextualisation of non-pedagogical input in the classroom context.

Texts that had been produced without any pedagogical purpose or that had been specifically modified to achieve a close resemblance to their counterparts in everyday use were used in some of the lessons observed in this study (e.g. see 5.2 and 5.3). These texts, traditionally described as ‘authentic’ texts, were usually presented by the teachers and the TTs to enhance language learning experience in the classroom. As the classroom was not the origin of these texts, they were recontextualised according to the specific goals of particular lessons and expectations of particular group of students. For example, in the samples Recon#1 and Recon#2 (Classroom A.1), it was possible to see the process of recontextualisation by the teacher trainees (see 5.2). By ‘recontextualisation’, I mean a part of the entextualisation process through which texts are being relocated and appropriated (i.e. taken out from their primary context(s) and introduced into a new context) (see Bernstein, 1990, p.184; Blommaert, 2005, p.47). In this study, the attempts and intentions of the teachers and TTs to recontextualise and accommodate the non-pedagogical texts to ensure that these texts have the aptitude for language teaching in the classroom context were framed and analysed within the process of authentication. In this sense, the findings of this study extended the previous research on using non-pedagogical materials in the language classroom and introduced recontextualisation as a part of the process of authentication by the language teachers. The findings showed that the classical ‘authenticity’ label alone was not enough to describe authentication in the language classroom. Therefore, they are in line with the related literature which indicates that traditionally authentic texts do not

naturally lead to authentic communication or experience in the classroom (Arnold, 1991; Guariento & Morely, 2001; Lee, 1995). In addition, they exemplified ‘learner authenticity’ through classroom-based evidence and supported the idea that any texts in the classroom need to be recognised and validated by the students in the context of language learning and these texts should engage the students’ interests (Lee, 1995; Nunan, 1988). In order to illustrate how didacticity (accommodation) was observed in this study, three classroom samples from Chapters 5 and 6 will be discussed and synthesised in this section.

Classroom	Classroom Sample	Sample Code	Section
Classroom A.1	Recontextualising non-pedagogical texts (reading)	<i>Recon#1</i>	5.2
	Recontextualising non-pedagogical texts (video)	<i>Recon#2</i>	5.2
Classroom A.2	News report in the textbook	<i>CLang#1</i>	6.2

Table 9.6. Samples for Didacticity (accommodation)

Although Person#1 in Classroom A.1 (see 5.3) can also be discussed within the theme of didacticity because of the type of text used in this sample (i.e. very short stories), it was addressed in the theme of ‘personalisation’ due to the nature of task outcomes (see 9.2.3). It is also worth noting that while both Recon#1 and Recon#2 address ‘traditionally authentic’ texts (i.e. non-pedagogical texts) brought into the classroom (see 5.2), CLang#1 includes a different type of text in terms of its origins (see 6.2). In CLang#1, although the text (i.e. a newspaper article) was produced by the textbook authors for pedagogical purposes in particular, it was intentionally designed and presented in a way that bore a close resemblance to a possible newspaper article that one could find outside the classroom. In this sense, it incorporates two layers: (1) it is a copy and imitation of a newspaper article in terms of its design and presentation, (2) it is a ‘simulacrum’ with its own valid right and

‘reality’ (Baudrillard, 1994) through specific pedagogical purposes in the classroom context. In other words, although the text in CLang#1 did not possess substance qualities of a newspaper article, it had the false-appearance and pseudo-feeling of a newspaper article.

In Classroom A.2, the text in CLang#1 (see 6.2) was produced by the textbook authors specifically for pedagogical purposes (i.e. vocabulary items on natural disasters) and the teacher trainee who used this text in her lesson validated it as a piece that closely resembled a traditionally authentic input (i.e. newspaper article). The students, moreover, gave varying responses to this text while they were comparing it with a possible newspaper article that they could see outside the classroom. Overall, they validated it through its content, purpose or presentation in the lesson (see interview extracts in 6.2). The process of authentication by the students in this sample indicated their comments on establishing pedagogical (e.g. vocabulary practice) and communicative relevance (e.g. a ‘realistic’ design and content that they might encounter in the daily life). However, even though the participants found the text relatively similar to a genuine newspaper report, they recognised it as ‘not a real news report’ but one specifically produced for pedagogical purposes in the guise of a newspaper article. As a result, there was a weak linkage between the *correspondence account of authenticity* and ‘real’ *language use* in this sample. Moreover, there was a weak linkage between *learner* and the *genesis account of authenticity* in this sample as the students did not show any personal contribution to or impact on the selection or presentation of the text.

In Recon#2 (Classroom A.1), the TTs used non-pedagogical texts as classroom materials to practise specific grammar points (see 5.2). They showed scenes from an American movie and an American TV-serial to highlight the target language structures explicitly. This received positive responses by the students particularly because the selected scenes attracted their attention and interest. The students also found this input very useful because the language used in the videos sounded more realistic and natural to them. As a result, although the TTs adopted a rather deductive way to practice grammar through non-pedagogical materials in the classroom, the students appreciated and validated the selection and presentation of these particular texts. The sample Recon#1 (see 5.2) is also about a lesson delivered by the same TTs in Classroom A.1. In this sample, they presented a reading text on Pompeii, which was taken and adapted from the UNESCO website. The TTs designed classroom tasks for vocabulary teaching with this text and they showed a video from the same website as a post-reading activity. Since both the selection and presentation of these texts were found realistically close to their counterparts in everyday language, the linkage between the *correspondence account* and '*real*' language use was strong for both samples.

Both the selected text and the related activities were validated and responded to positively by the students. However, the teacher decided to intervene at the end of the lesson to review the vocabulary items practiced through this text. This intervention was categorised as an act of authentication. The interview data revealed that the teacher's intervention here reinforced the process of authentication by the students through examples from familiar contexts. As a result, the linkages between *learner* and the *genesis account*, between *classroom* and '*real*' language use as well

as *pedagogical use* were much stronger in Recon#1 than the ones in the other two samples. Overall, Recon#1 and Recon#2, in particular, showed potential links between the processes of recontextualisation and of authentication in the classroom context.

In these two samples (Recon#1 and Recon#2), the TTs presented the texts that were selected according to both their and students' interests and they designed the lesson plan to accommodate these texts in the lesson. Moreover, in Recon#1, the teacher intervened at the end of the lesson to review some vocabulary items and to provide relatively personalised samples from familiar contexts. This can be considered her attempt to foster the process of authentication in the classroom. In CLang#1, on the other hand, the TT presented a text designed like a newspaper article and validated it as realistic input compared to its counterparts in everyday life (i.e. a 'real' newspaper article). As in all of these three samples, the teacher and teacher trainees validated these texts and accommodated them in the lesson on the basis of both their own decisions and the pedagogical consideration, the linkages between the *genesis account of authenticity, teacher and classroom* were strong ones. Since the students were engaged in the texts and tasks presented in the lessons, there is also a strong linkage between *learner and classroom*.

The linkage between *learner* and the *genesis account*, however, was revealed in different ways. In CLang#1, a weak linkage was observed between these two components as students did not show any personal contribution to or impact on the selection or presentation of the text. Both in Recon#1 and Recon#2, however, the texts were selected by the TTs according to students' interests and they facilitated

the students' personal contributions. Therefore, the linkage between *learner* and the *genesis account of authenticity* was strong in both samples.

All of the texts in the samples (i.e. non-pedagogical texts in Recon#1 and Recon#2 and the text designed like a newspaper article in CLang#1) were (re)contextualised for instructive purposes in the language classroom and validated by the participants. Therefore, in all of the three samples the linkages between *classroom*, *pedagogical use of language* and the *correspondence account* were strong. Moreover, the linkages between *classroom*, *pedagogical use* and '*real*' language use were even stronger for Recon#1 because of the teacher's intervention that strengthened the aptitude for teaching and made the vocabulary items more meaningful and personal for students. As the participants considered the language used in the texts rather similar to language used in the daily life (i.e. outside the classroom), the linkages between *classroom* and '*real*' language use in these samples were also strong.

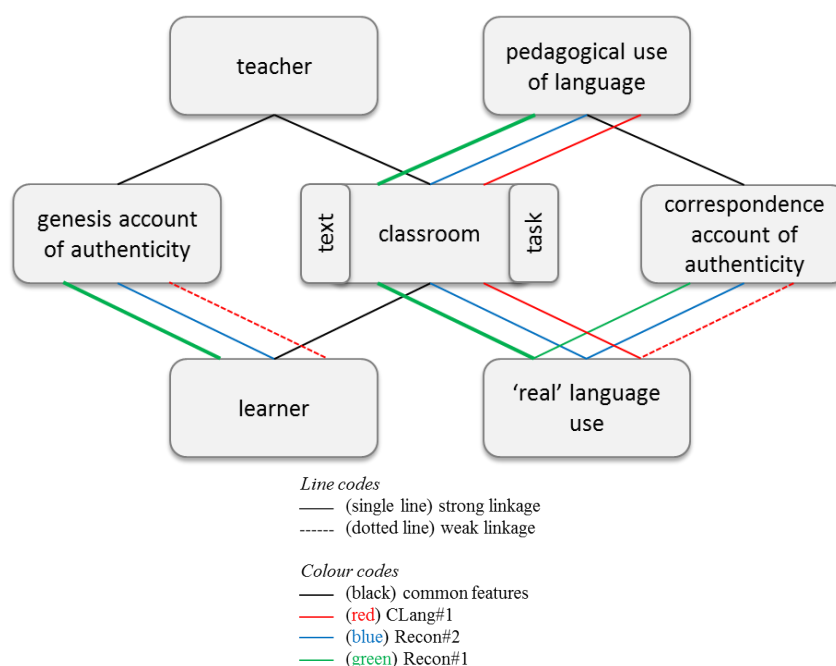


Figure 9.7. Visualisation of Didacticity (Accommodation) connections

A visualisation of these three samples is presented in the diagram above (Figure 9.7), in which the single lines refer to connections successfully developed in the given contexts while the dotted lines are used to show somewhat weak connections between the components. Moreover, the colour **red** is for CLang#1 (6.2), the colour **blue** is used for Recon#2 (5.2) and **green** is used for Recon#1 (5.2). Black lines, on the other hand, are used to show the common features shared in all of the three samples. In conclusion, Figure 9.7 illustrates that the process of recontextualisation can be framed within the participants' attempts at authentication and that their responses can be varying depending on the selection and presentation of non-pedagogical texts.

### **9.3.3. Localisation**

In this study, localisation emerged as one particular mode of (re)contextualisation of a text or topic in order to achieve specific contextual or cultural expectations or to build familiar and personal connections. Localisation is also related to personalisation (see 9.2.3) and didacticity (see 9.3.1 and 9.3.2) in a broader sense; however, in this section it will be discussed in terms of the level of (inter)national context. That is, the theme includes references to the local and international culture, which have been addressed in Chapter 2 as 'large culture' (see Section 2.4.2).

The findings revealed that referring to familiar and local contexts as well as making connections between pedagogical goals and current contextual conditions can be seen as acts of authentication by the participants. In those acts and references, the participants aimed to establish the sense and the relevance of the text (or classroom interaction) through concrete contextual examples and local references in order to make them authentic for themselves. Here, the findings support that authenticity



should be reviewed as what is meaningful and relevant for the students and the teachers, their lives and their goals (Holliday, 2013; Lee, 1995; Trabelsi, 2011; 2014).

Traditionally, authenticity refers to texts and tasks that bear close resemblance to actual use of language and activities in English-speaking countries. However, Butler (2011) warns that such assumption creates ambiguity and its own limitation as this kind of texts ‘may or may not relate to [students’] daily lives or correspond to the kinds of language that they would use in real communicative contexts as a means of global communication’ (p.42). Here, the findings are in line with the claims of MacDonald et al. (2006) by supporting that the concept of authenticity should be reframed within ‘the experience of being and becoming’, thus seen as the participants’ process of subjectification (p.256) through their attempts at personalisation and localisation of the content.

In Classrooms A.2, B.1 and B.2, they used textbooks specifically designed for the Turkish context (*Solutions Türkiye*, OUP). However, the teachers regarded the title of the textbook as a marketing label only since they were expecting more contents related to the local culture and Turkish context (Asuman, 121228; Faruk, 121211; Sevgi, 121220). It is possible to see attempts of localisation in different samples discussed in the previous themes. For example, Recon#1 involved the teacher’s giving examples from the local context and aiming at building connections between the target vocabulary items and students’ daily lives (see 9.2.2). ProS#2 (see 9.1.1) and Disc#1 (see 9.1.3) also included clear references to local contextual details and

elements in the themes of spontaneity and discrepancy, respectively. Six classroom samples from Classrooms B.1 and B.2 will be discussed and synthesised below.

Classroom	Classroom Sample	Sample Code	Section
Classroom B.1	Culture: Halloween	<i>Cult#1</i>	7.2
	Special occasions in local culture	<i>Cult#2</i>	7.2
	Relating the topic to daily life	<i>Daily#1</i>	7.3
	Creating imaginary scenarios (giving directions)	<i>Imagi#1</i>	7.4
Classroom B.2	Portraits on the Turkish notes	<i>TPMat#1</i>	8.2
	Personal outcomes (writing)	<i>ProP#2</i>	8.4

Table 9.7. Samples for Localisation

In *Cult#1* and *Cult#2* in Classroom B.1, a reading text about Halloween was introduced by one of the TTs (see 7.2). While students were familiar with this festival as a part of popular, international culture, Halloween was not celebrated by many in the Turkish context. Moreover, the topic was introduced not only as a ‘cultural’ one but also a ‘pedagogical’ one through which it was aimed to introduce new vocabulary items and improve students’ speaking skills (i.e. talking about popular festivals). Although the textbook activity included some questions to encourage the students to talk about Halloween and local festivals celebrated in Turkey, the students were not given the opportunity to elaborate their sentences or share their personal experiences on this topic. Here, it is worth noting that some students had quiet and short talk among themselves, which could be labelled as the ‘underlife’ that occurred alongside the ‘official’ level of teacher-student interaction during the lesson (Goffman, 1961; Rymes, 2009). However, this was not recognised by the TT.

The interview data of *Cult#1* and *Cult#2* also revealed a possible discrepancy between views of the students and the teacher on addressing local and international

cultures in the language classroom. For example, the teacher claimed that Halloween was not an essential topic in the language classroom and that students' participation and engagement could be fostered through topics more related to the local context (e.g. a festival celebrated in Turkey). Moreover she claimed that teachers might not be able to polish such topics since their knowledge and personal experience were usually inadequate. This view, in fact, echoes Alptekin's word of warning on possible unfavourable positions when non-native speaker teachers are expected to introduce 'native speaker culture' (2002). Hence, the teacher in Classroom B.1 preferred 'localisation' as a strategy to authenticate the topic both for herself and for her students. In the interview session, the TT also stressed possible benefits of including the local culture to help students' concretisation and their making sense of the topics related to international culture. However, notwithstanding her view, the TT did not elaborate the part on a festival celebrated in the local culture in the lesson. Hence there was a weak linkage between *teacher* and the *genesis account of authenticity*. The interviews with the students, on the other hand, revealed that they found the topics related to international culture more appealing and although they could contribute more to the speaking tasks when the topic is culturally familiar, it might not go beyond translating the 'already-known' information about local culture into English.

In TPMat#1 (Classroom B.2), on the other hand, I, as the teacher who delivered the lesson, decided to include famous Turkish people in my lesson (i.e. portraits on the current Turkish banknotes) since the textbook did not introduce any famous characters from the local context (see 8.2). Although I thought this attempt at localisation could make the topic more engaging and relevant to the students' daily

lives, it was not found very appealing by the students. The interviews with the students showed that popularity or current significance of the subject could be very important in this kind of input, particularly for adolescents and their interaction with classroom texts and tasks. In this sense, although the task was validated by the students, the text could not attract their personal interests or foster their engagement. In TPMat#1, Cul#1 and Cult#2, their engagement did not go beyond simply following the given task and the students did not appear to have an original contribution to the task or build a strong personal connection with the text. As a result, a weak linkage emerged between *learner* and the *genesis account* for both of the samples.

In Daily#1 (Classroom B.1), the teacher both localised and personalised the classroom tasks on ‘have to/has to’ by both giving examples from her daily life and asking questions to the students (see 7.3). Here, she tried to promote students’ engagement through samples from local and familiar contexts such as wearing school uniforms at the school. Her attempt resulted in a dialogical conversation between the teacher and students who appeared to disagree with each other about the new regulations on school uniforms. In this sense, the process of authentication involved a shift from explicit grammar instruction to a discussion on a local issue, which helped the students to go beyond a reading text about an imaginary school and to address a ‘real’ issue relevant to their daily lives. In other words, it makes the abstract notion of grammar ‘real’ and ‘concrete’ to the students.

Imagi#1 in the same classroom presented another attempt by the teacher to ‘localise’ the topic and make it more relevant to students’ daily lives. In this sample, the

teacher used the local context to introduce a new topic in the textbook (i.e. giving directions in English). The teacher's imaginary but rather realistic scenario did not aim to create a genuine dialogue, but helped students make sense of the new topic in a familiar and local context. This contextualisation, in the form of localisation, by the teacher can be considered as her attempt at authentication in the lesson. It also received positive responses by the students, and some of them even shared jokes about how Turkish people would give directions in English.

Unlike the other samples mentioned above of the teachers' attempts at localisation, the final sample of this theme, ProP#2 in Classroom B.2, involved acts of localisation by the students (see 8.4). Although it was categorised as 'personalisation' in the findings, both because the content of the particular task included clear contextual references and because the themes of personalisation and localisation were intertwined in this specific case, I have decided to discuss this sample within the theme of localisation. In this lesson, some of the students ignored the imaginary situations given in the writing task (e.g. receiving a scarf as a Christmas gift) and addressed real issues in the current classroom context. Here their process of authentication included personalising the outputs and referring to the local contextual details even though this was not mentioned in the instructions. Although the students' written notes did not sound 'natural' in terms of the language use, it contained sincere and personal expressions.

In all of the five samples, both the students and the teachers, including the TTs in Cult#1 and Cult#2 and me in TPMat#1 and ProP#2, were engaged in the classroom activities, thus having strong linkages between *teacher*, *learner* and *classroom*. In

TPMat#1, Daily#1, Imagi#1 and ProP#2, it was possible to see the teachers' individual, genuine contributions to the text presented in the classroom. As a result, these four samples included strong linkages between *teacher* and the *genesis account* while, as mentioned above, this linkage was weak in Cult#2. Since the students in Daily#1, Imagi#1 and ProP#2 were able to express themselves, share their personal views or stories and/or create genuine outputs related to the local context, the linkage between *learner* and the *genesis account* was strong in these three samples. However, this linkage was weak in samples Cult#1, Cult#2 and TPMat#1 due to lack of the genuine contributions by the students.

The linkage between the *correspondence account* and *pedagogical use of language* was strong for all of the samples as the process and outcomes developed in accordance with the design and purpose of the classroom tasks. However, except for Imagi#1 and ProP#2, the samples did not involve students' deeper engagement with and their full comprehension of the substantive goal of the classroom task. For example, in Cult#1, Cult#2 and TPMat#1, students' involvement and their outcomes could be simply considered as procedural engagement in the classroom. Likewise, in Daily#1, although the topic was interesting and engaging for the students, the interaction between participants were mainly carried out through L1, thus it was not found useful by them in terms of improving language skills in the target language. This resulted in a weak linkage between *classroom* and *pedagogical use of language* for Cult#1, Cult#2, TPMat#1 and Daily#1. In all of the six samples, the information and/or the language used in the texts became relatively more realistic and relevant through the participants' attempts of localisation. As a result, the linkage between *classroom* and '*real*' *language use* was strong for all of the samples. However, the

outcomes did not often bear a close similarity to the everyday language use or did not always facilitate a communicative process in the target language. Thus, the linkage between *'real' language use* and the *correspondence account* was weak for all of the samples.

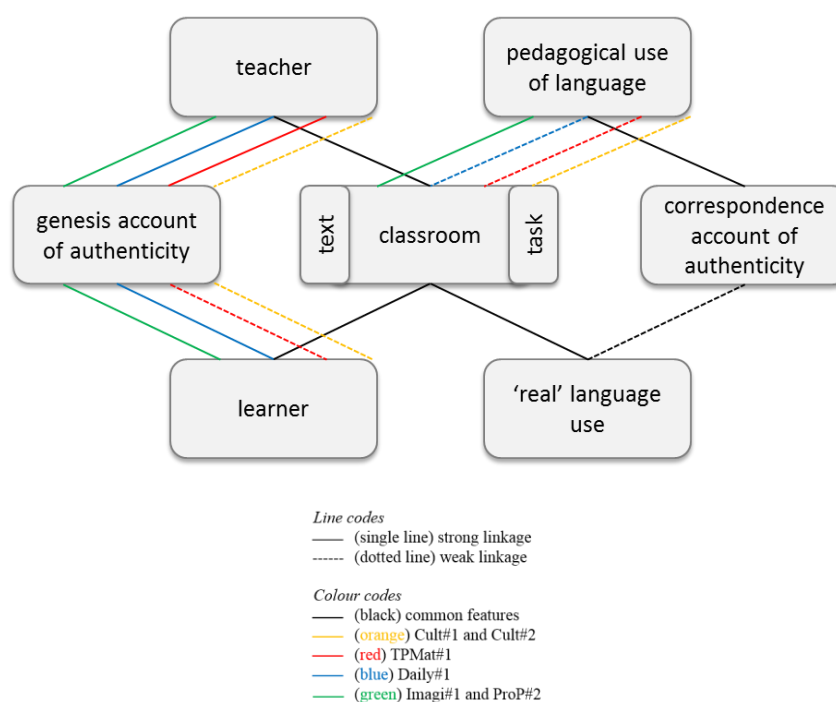


Figure 9.8. Visualisation of Localisation connections

A visualisation of these six samples is presented in the diagram above (Figure 9.8). The single lines refer to connections successfully developed in the given contexts while the dotted lines are used to show somewhat weak connections between the components. The colour **orange** is used for Cult#1 and Cult#2 (7.2), **red** is used for TPMat#1 (8.2), **blue** is for Daily#1 (7.3) and **green** is used for Imagi#1 (7.4) and ProP#2 (8.4). Like in the previous diagrams in this chapter, black lines are used to show the common features shared in all of the five samples. All in all, the samples demonstrated that localisation as a mode of (re)contextualisation of a text or a lesson topic to develop local relevance and familiar references can be framed within the process of authentication.

## **9.4. Authenticity and actors**

As the findings of this study highlight, authenticity can be seen as a phenomenon that is (co)constructed by the students and teachers in the classroom context through a dynamic and complex process of authentication. This process is conveyed by individuals, thus by their motivations, experiences, interpretations, their interests and contributions. Although its main reference point is motivational studies, a ‘person-in-context relational view’ advocated by Ushioda (2009; 2011) provides insightful guidance to understand authenticity as a process of personal engagement as well and to build possible links between authenticity, motivation and people in the classroom context. Ushioda (2009) describes the ‘person-in-context relational view’ as ‘a view of motivation as emergent from relations between real persons, with particular social identities, and the unfolding cultural context of activity’ (p.215). In many respects, this appears similar to van Lier’s definition of authenticity as ‘a process of engagement’ and ‘a characteristic of the persons engaged in learning’ (p.125).

In this study, the students and the teachers, also the teacher trainees, were the main actors in the process of authentication of the classroom events and language used in these events. In the light of the previous highlights discussed under ‘interaction’ and ‘context’ sections above, these actors will be presented below within the ‘person-in-context relational view’ that focuses on ‘the unique local particularities of the person as self-reflective intentional agent, inherently part of and shaping his/her own context’ (Ushioda, 2009, p.218).

### **9.4.1. Language teachers and teacher trainees**

During the classroom observations and interviews with the participants, it was possible to compare the teachers’ and the teacher trainees’ practices and experiences



in the classrooms. This comparison was usually accompanied by the teachers and teacher trainees' being experienced or novice in practice and the age gap between them and the students. As described before, all of the four participating teachers were in their 50s with around 30 years of teaching experience. The teacher trainees (TT), however, were in their twenties and they were in their final year of undergraduate studies. The age difference between the TTs and the students was about five years. This seemed to help the TTs to build relatively more friendly and 'informal' relations with the students.

The TTs were observing and delivering lessons in the schools as a part of their university course requirements. In the interviews, this status was mentioned by the students describing the TTs as being 'not real teachers yet' or 'not our teacher'. As trainees and novice teachers, the TTs were expected to visit the language lessons to observe issues such as classroom management, student participation, lesson planning and materials designing (i.e. school experience) in the first academic term. In the second term, they were expected to plan and deliver their own lessons in the classroom context (i.e. teaching practice). In both terms, the TTs were required to write reflective reports and share their experiences with their fellow classmates and course tutor.

The findings of this study are in line with the argument that one should not overlook the significant role of the teachers' efforts and strategies in the classroom context in terms of stimulating the process of authentication (Joy, 2011; Shomoossi & Ketabi, 2007; 2008; van Lier, 1996). As Hawkes (2012) emphasises, students 'mediate learning with and for each other' but teachers have 'an arguable unique role,

especially within an instructional setting' (p.57). Teachers can promote students' engagement and authentication by making the process in the classroom more friendly, understanding and sensitive to learners' needs (Kreber et al., 2007; Thorp, 1991) or they can dominate the process and interfere with the students' genuine responses (White, 2006). Moreover, as Tatsuki (2006) underlines, they can turn 'the poorest, most unnatural sounding textbook or supplementary materials in the world' into a springboard to 'create authenticity through social interactions' (p.11). Kreber et al. (2007) underlines that authenticity in teaching relates to teachers' being able to act on their decisions while engaging with a larger question of purpose with regard to pedagogy and promoting genuine dialogues with students around ideas that matter (p.37-38). The findings demonstrated that the teachers in particular tended to build a balance between their actions and decisions considering their own choices as well as the students' interests and needs and the pedagogical goals in their lessons. In this sense, the findings also provide classroom-based examples to support the existing literature on teacher authenticity where teachers are presented as key actors and facilitators building dynamic connections between (1) teacher and subject, (2) teacher and student, and (3) student and subject in the classroom (see Kreber et al., 2007).

The findings also revealed that the potential differences in the classroom practices of the teachers and the TTs could in fact indicate the teachers' and TTs' attempts at creating classroom conditions that reflect their own philosophy of teaching and their agency as well as their differential roles and potentials in the process of authentication. The interview data indicated that the students usually found the TTs' lessons rather interesting and beneficial because the TTs preferred to use non-

pedagogical texts or design their own materials in the lessons. However, this did not mean that the TTs' lessons were perceived much more useful than the teachers' lessons in which pedagogical texts were mainly used. For example, in Recon#1, Recon#2 (see 5.2) and TPMat#2 (see 8.4), it was possible to see how the students responded to the materials and tasks designed and presented by the TTs in particular.

The findings also showed that although the teachers tended to use the assigned textbooks as main input in the classroom, they could be flexible and they encouraged the students to engage in the texts and tasks by making them more personal and relevant. For instance, classroom events presented in Recon#1 (see 5.2), Spon#1, Spon#2 (see 5.4), ProS#2 (see 6.4) and Daily#1 (see 7.3) included related findings from Classrooms A.1, A.2 and B.1 where the teachers adapted the flow of lesson. The TTs in all of the four classrooms, on the other hand, tended to focus on carrying the lesson plan in a relatively strict manner. For example, in Recon#1 (see 5.2) and Cult#2 (see 7.2), it was possible to see this tendency and compare the teachers' and TTs' practices in terms of their flexibility and spontaneity in responding to emerging situations in the classrooms and reframing the flow of the lesson.

#### **9.4.2. Language learners and autonomy**

Different interpretations and degrees of autonomy can be identified in language education, which inevitably results in various perceptions and definitions of autonomy in the literature (Benson & Voller, 1997; Nunan, 1997; Smith, 2003). In a broader sense, autonomy, learner autonomy in particular, has been usually described as a process in which persons gradually take responsibility for their own practices (e.g. learning) through accessing available resources and making their own choices both inside and outside the classroom (Balcikanli, 2008; Benson, 2007; Chan, 2000;

Jones, 1995; Lee, 1998; Little, 2007). In this sense, the two pillars of autonomy are listed as *choice* and *responsibility* (van Lier, 1996).

Since autonomy was not the main focus of this study, I did not attempt to thoroughly investigate in which ways the participants developed readiness for taking the responsibility for their decisions and their overall learning or teaching experience. However, during the processes of data collection and analysis, it was possible to trace the dialectical relationship between autonomy and authenticity in the classroom. That is, in some cases the students' and teachers' autonomy (e.g. making their own decisions or expressing their choices) facilitated their acts of authentication, thus of making sense and creating relevance of the subject on both pedagogical and personal levels, which consequently promoted their autonomy in language learning or teaching.

As underlined in Chapter 2, autonomy and authenticity can be seen as two interwoven concepts in the language classroom (Holliday, 2005; van Lier, 1996) especially when authenticity is not defined through the norm of native speakers in communication but through the attempts and reflection of learners' own immediate reality (Murray, 1996). The findings of this study are in line with this claim by revealing that participants' acts and attempts to authenticate the certain slices of the teaching and learning process in the classroom (e.g. materials, tasks) can demonstrate their autonomous decisions, choices and contributions. The findings illustrated that possible links between autonomy and authenticity are in effect observable and practical when authenticity is seen as 'the results of acts of authentication' through which participants can 'validate (authenticate) learning

opportunities as they occur, create their own learning opportunities when the circumstances allow' and take the responsibility of their actions and choices (van Lier, 1996, p.144). In this sense, contrary to the claims that autonomy and authenticity cannot exist in concert (Widdowson 1994; 1996), the findings showed that it is possible to link the main features of autonomy (i.e. choice and responsibility) and authenticity (i.e. relevance, interpretation, validation and integrity).

For example, in Person#1 (see 5.3) the students were given the opportunity to choose a specific story they wanted to use (i.e. one of the seven very short stories) and a specific type of output they wanted to produce. In this sample, the students also worked in groups while they were making these decisions and producing their outputs. Furthermore, I, as the teacher who delivered this lesson, had a chance to select the lesson goal, materials and classroom tasks. That is, I was designing the lesson in a rather autonomous way rather than being given a fixed lesson plan with particular texts and steps.

However, this does not mean that teachers cannot promote autonomy, and authenticity, while using the textbook and following the fixed, official lesson plan. For instance, Person#2 (see 5.3), the teacher aimed at making a reading text on a balanced diet more relevant and personal for students and she encouraged students to personalise their outputs by including their own samples and opinions. Her act was considered as an act of authentication (i.e. personalisation, in this case) as it gave students the opportunity to make the texts 'theirs', thus to build an authentic relation with the language they were practising and using. This was also an attempt to foster

students' autonomy as they were practising the target language to share specific and personal information from their own daily lives. In this sense, it also echoes one of the principles of the 'strong version of pedagogy for autonomy in practice' proposed by Smith (2003) through 'establishing a connection between students' classroom learning and their lives outside the classroom', thus making the instruction more appropriate, engaging and relevant for students (p.133).

Finally, in Imagi#2 (see 7.4), the students created their own imaginary scenarios and wrote their own script in their act-out. While they autonomously designed their act-out and authenticated the task in this way, they overlooked some pedagogical goals (i.e. practising specific vocabulary items and useful phrases). This was pointed by the teacher, who appreciated students' efforts and genuine output while bearing her normative position in mind and trying to address the lesson content.

All in all, the findings of this study are in line with van Lier's claim that authenticity can emerge 'the result and the origin of' autonomy (1996, p.13). Moreover, they support Holliday's point on learner autonomy that if we recognise students' 'natural autonomy, which they bring from the hurly burly of their daily lives outside the classroom, we can see that they have the potential to make up their own minds about what is meaningful to them... This then relates to a very old but often forgotten definition of authenticity as what the students themselves find meaningful' (2013, p.20).

## 9.5. Conclusion

In these concluding sections of the thesis, I will summarise the aim of this study and share my conclusions by providing the contributions to knowledge, the implications and possible directions for further research. Through classroom-based data presentation, this study aimed to unpack the term ‘authenticity’ in English language classrooms and demonstrate the complex and multi-faceted nature of this term in the field of ELT. Here, two concepts have been presented and investigated thoroughly: (1) authenticity and (2) authentication.

The findings have revealed that notwithstanding its common use in the ELT field, the term ‘authenticity’ in language classrooms is more than a prescribed property of texts (e.g. materials) or of classroom tasks (e.g. language teaching activities). It has a multi-faceted nature that includes *text*, *task*, *learner* and *teacher* in the context of *classroom*. In this sense, this study has expanded Widdowson’s still text-based and native-speaker-oriented claim that authenticity is ‘a characteristic of the relationship between the passage and the reader and it has to do with appropriate response’ (1979, p.80). Moreover, as Widdowson (2003) claims, traditionally, ‘authentic’ texts can be ‘useless... unless they can be authenticated as discourse use’ (p.105). The findings of the study supported the claim that authenticity is a characteristic, and indeed an outcome, of the relationship between the text and the users of this text (i.e. language learners and teachers). However, the findings revealed that the criteria for ‘appropriate response’ are not always set by the text or by the native speaker standards. This relationship is socially constructed and response takes place through a dynamic process involving text, task, learner and teacher within the classroom context. Here, I revisit the model presented previously that shows the dimensions of

authenticity in the language classroom (see Chapter 3) in order to highlight the fact that authenticity can be considered as a personal outcome though the social interaction among different dimensions in this model.

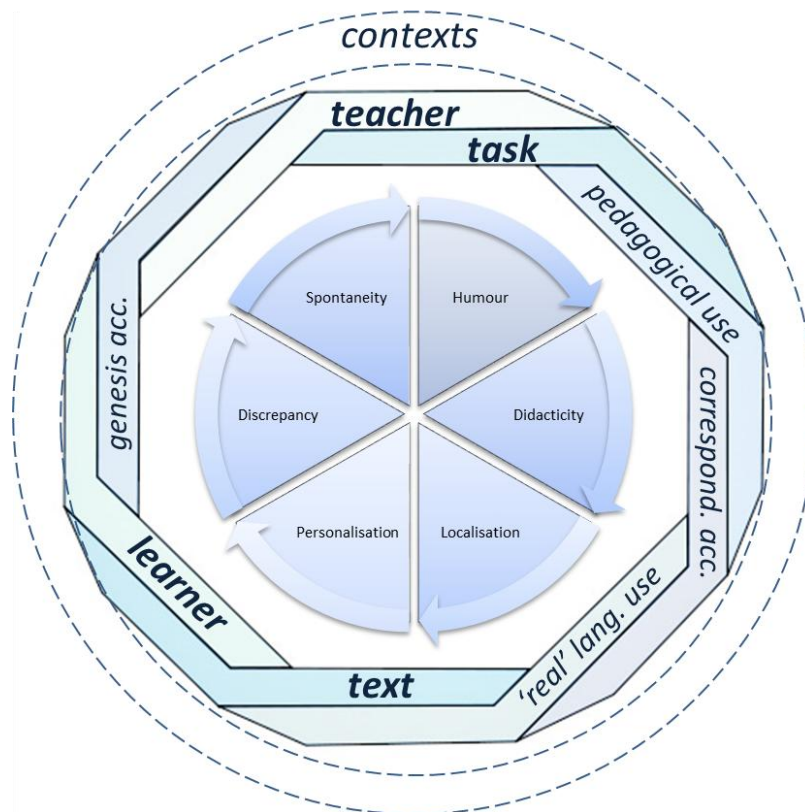


Figure 9.9. Revised model

The interaction between these dimensions of authenticity can take place concurrently with the process of authentication by the two main actors in the classroom: learner and teacher. Authenticity is something that is bestowed upon a text or interaction by language learners and teachers in the classroom context, and the process of bestowing authenticity upon a text or interaction is called authentication in this thesis. In this sense, the study echoes van Lier's description of authenticity as 'the result of authentication, by students and their teacher, of the learning process and the language used in it' (1996, p.128). In order to illustrate the process of authentication described in this study, the original model presented in Chapter 3 has been modified



as seen in Figure 9.9. The revised model includes the dimensions of authenticity already listed in Figure 3.1 (written in bold) along with the other components of the process of authentication. The placement of the components in this model is in line with the specifications of the diagram introduced earlier (see Section 9.1). Moreover, the key themes that emerged in this case study are placed in the centre of the model. Overall, Figure 9.9 aims to illustrate and detail the dynamics and links among different dimensions, accounts and conditions of authenticity.

It is worth emphasising that the components of this model and the themes that emerged in this study may well be relatable to other similar contexts in language education. However, the details of these themes and the interaction between the components would be different and context-specific. In order to help the reader understand the specific classroom contexts and events described in this study and compare them with their own conditions, I provided rich contextual details in the previous chapters. This issue was also addressed in Section 4.8 as analytical and reader generalizability.

This model, therefore, has substantial contributions for the field with regard to materials developers, language learners, teachers and teacher development programmes. Firstly, rather than promoting ‘authenticity’ as an inherent quality of a particular type of language use, which is often interpreted as language samples produced by native speakers, materials developers can address different components of authenticity and aim to produce texts that can be easily tailored according to the needs and characteristics of specific groups of users and/or specific classroom contexts. This can give the teachers and students the opportunity to use the materials

they have (or in most cases, the materials they are ‘obliged’ to have) as a springboard to authenticate the interaction and the experience in language lessons. Secondly, learners can be involved in the process of text selection or adaptation wherever possible. Furthermore, their role in and genuine contribution to the process of authentication should be recognised in the classroom. This can also promote their autonomy. Thirdly, teachers can use the model to identify possible components and acts of authentication in their classrooms and address not only the role and contributions of their students, but also their own agency and role in the process of authentication. In this sense, teacher development programmes can raise both in-service teachers’ and teacher trainees’ awareness of the dynamic and multi-dimensional nature of authenticity and of the possible ways in which the process of authentication takes place within the classroom context (e.g. personalisation, localisation). This also includes highlighting the importance of reflective teaching practices (e.g. action research, exploratory practice) to explore and understand the dynamics and richness of the language classrooms. To facilitate this, school leaders can provide conditions that enable teachers and students to work together, to express their preferences and ideas and to authenticate their experiences of language teaching and learning.

This study, unlike most studies of authenticity in ELT (see Chapter 2), has engaged with empirical data which reveals not just the properties of a text or interaction (i.e. whether it is authentic or not) - but rather the precise conditions under which human actors engage (or do not engage) with texts and interactions in order to bestow authenticity upon them and make them authentic to themselves. The findings revealed that the process of authentication includes the students’ and teachers’

attempts at validation, making sense and building personal and pedagogical relevance of the language samples, activities and their overall language teaching and learning experience in the classroom. These attempts and acts in the language lessons were discussed through the themes as Spontaneity (see 9.2.1), Discrepancy (see 9.2.2), Personalisation (see 9.2.3), Humour (see 9.2.4), Didacticity (genesis and accommodation) (see 9.3.1 and 9.3.2) and Localisation (see 9.3.2). Moreover, as to the relationship between authenticity and actors, the issues related to ‘teacher and teacher trainees’ (9.4.1) and ‘learners and learner autonomy’ (9.4.2) were addressed following the discussion of these key themes. It is worth highlighting again that none of these themes are mutually exclusive as they can emerge concomitantly during the co-construction of the lesson by the participants. For example, humour can be observed in an episode of a spontaneous act or personalisation can be realised in the process of accommodation of non-pedagogical inputs (didacticity: accommodation). The study has, therefore, explored the different dimensions of authenticity in detail and provided actual illustrations of the process of authentication by the students and their teachers in the classroom context. At the end, both the teachers and the students develop and express their agencies and co-construct the language learning and teaching experiences in the classroom by and through their acts of authentication.

#### **9.5.1. Contributions of the study**

This study provides classroom-based evidence for the on-going discussion of ‘authenticity’ in the field of ELT. To date, ‘authenticity’ as a multi-dimensional outcome of the complex, interactional process in the language classroom has been under-researched. Indeed, to the best of my knowledge so far, this study is the first study that has been conducted to investigate the process of authentication in language classrooms empirically and in relation to general English teaching instead

of to ESP contexts. Therefore, the first contribution of this study is to provide rich classroom-based evidence and a more holistic, dynamic account of authenticity in ELT. To capture this holistic and dynamic conceptualisation, a unique model that demonstrates the dimensions of authenticity within a penrose square has been also proposed in this study.

Most of the studies with a focus on ‘authenticity’ in language lessons have been conducted in a materials-oriented way (e.g. presentation and impact of ‘authentic materials’ in language classrooms) or tailored in a quantitative research tradition (e.g. conducting questionnaires and statistical analysis to find out the effect of ‘authentic materials’ in language education). Therefore, the second contribution is not only to go beyond this materials-orientated approach but also to provide a qualitative case study with four units of analysis that is supported with rigorous data elicitation and inductive data analysis in order to illustrate and investigate the students’ and their teachers’ attempts at authentication in the classroom context.

The third contribution of this study is its attempt to demonstrate possible links built during the process of authentication by the participants between the genesis and correspondence accounts of authenticity as well as between the pedagogical and communicative conditions. Here, the study contributed to the theoretical knowledge on authenticity by presenting evidence from actual classroom practice and illustrating that ‘authenticity’ can embrace both pedagogical and communicative intention, interpretation and validation. To this end, the components of the process of authentication was visualised in Section 9.1, and this visual was utilised to discuss the nature of linkages between different components.

Although the study was conducted in the Turkish context and it does not claim to establish ‘factual’ or statistical generalisation, it can provide ‘illustrative outcomes’ (Richards, 2011, p.216) for other ELT practitioners and researchers from similar contexts (e.g. high school level language lessons, English language classrooms in Turkish context or any other EFL contexts). The fourth contribution of this study, therefore, is to provide rich description and contextualisation of the data samples in order to facilitate analytical and comparative understanding of the findings.

The findings of this study also resonate with Breen’s (1985b) metaphor for the language classroom (i.e. coral gardens) and his list of the eight essential features of the classroom as genuine culture (see 2.5.1). In this sense, the findings of this study highlight the special nature and contextual role of language classrooms in the process of authentication. Therefore, the fifth contribution of the study is to indicate that the process of authentication by the participants is shaped by the context and it concurrently reproduces and maintains the specific conditions that form the context.

### **9.5.2. Implications of the study**

It is possible to list a number of implications of the findings for ELT practitioners including researchers, teachers and curriculum and materials designers. One of the main implications is that authenticity is a context-specific and multi-dimensional concept rather than a sticky label that can be simply put on the teaching materials. This indicates that curriculum and materials designers should address authenticity as multi-dimensional and individual phenomenon and an outcome of the process of authentication in the classroom rather than promoting the term as an inherent quality of materials without a clear definition. This implication is indeed in line with Murray’s call for questioning the status of ‘imported authenticity’ in the language

classroom (1996). Authenticity can be valued and promoted as one of the learning objectives with its reference to making the experience of language learning and teaching meaningful, useful and relevant in both personal and pedagogical levels.

Secondly, the study encourages language teachers to focus on what is going on in their classrooms and to acknowledge authenticity as an outcome of the process of validation and authentication rather than limiting their materials selection and presentation to the fabricated properties and labels of the texts and tasks. In addition, the study provides implications for teacher training and professional development programmes as it encourages language teachers to explore and study the interaction and engagement in their classrooms. In this sense, this study indicates the importance of reflective teaching practices (e.g. action research, exploratory practice) to understand the process of authentication in specific language lessons and to enhance their language learning and teaching experience. As Trabelsi (2011) points out, the authenticity debate in the literature should be included in teacher education in order to introduce the dynamics and complexity of authenticity to prospective teachers.

Finally, the study has implications for ELT practitioners including researchers about the relationship between autonomy and authenticity. It is highlighted that authenticity and autonomy can simultaneously emerge and foster each other in the process of authentication by students and teachers. Moreover, it is indicated that neither autonomy nor authenticity should be defined within the norms and alleged authority of native speakers. This study emphasises that we should embrace English as an international means of communication today and celebrate individual

contributions to and constructions of language learning and teaching experiences. The role of English as an international language challenges the notion of the native speaker and its controversial position as one of the defining features of ‘authenticity’ in ELT (Kramsch, 1993; 1998; Kramsch & Sullivan, 1996). The present study addresses recognising individuals’ efforts at authentication in language learning and teaching through social interactions regardless of the ideological dichotomy between the labels of ‘native’ and ‘non-native’ speakers of English. In this sense, this study reiterates some scholars’ calls that authenticity should be described more inclusively by embracing all speakers of English without reference to the political and ideological dichotomy of native- and non-native speakers (see Pinner, 2014b; Trabelsi, 2010; 2011).

### **9.5.3. Future directions**

The findings, contributions and implications of this study indicate some areas of further research directions. These areas that are listed below could complement the present study. This study includes four 9<sup>th</sup> grade classrooms (i.e. units of analysis) to explore how the process of authentication has been realised in different classroom contexts with different actors (i.e. teachers and students). Due to access issues, I was able to observe two lessons of each classroom per week and I conducted interviews only with two students from each classroom. Alternatively, a study that focuses on one specific classroom and includes all of the language lessons in that classroom throughout the academic year can provide deeper insights as well as richer and more progressive illustrations of the process of authentication by the participants. Moreover, this kind of study can include more than two students as interview participants to elicit and honour individual differences while capturing the big picture in the classroom more clearly. Likewise, a study with the language teachers

who are willing to carry out reflective teaching practice in their classroom could be designed and promoted. Despite its possible drawbacks, this kind of practice (e.g. action research, exploratory practice) can provide rich and individual insights on authenticity in language classrooms.

As mentioned in the findings chapters, I selected three main themes from each classroom to present and discuss in this study depending on the amount and richness of data samples. As a complementary attempt, a follow-up study can focus on the minor-themes emerging in the data analysis process and explore the nature of these themes in detail. Likewise, a complementary research project can be designed to focus on, investigate and elaborate specific key themes discussed in this study. For example, further research can provide better understanding to explore the relationships between spontaneity and authenticity, humour and authenticity or autonomy and authenticity in the language classroom.

Although the existing literature provides us with some theoretical or prescriptive information or assumptions about authenticity as a multi-dimensional concept, there is still need for more classroom-based studies that investigate the process of authentication in language classrooms. This study conducted in Turkey, a special geographical context between Europe and Asia and an EFL context intermediate between central and peripheral countries in ELT, provides empirical data in relation to general English teaching. Preferably, comparative studies can be conducted in other regions of Turkey or in other EFL countries to investigate how the process of authentication is realised in various ELT contexts. This would help this study gain wider resonance and validate its findings in other contexts.



As a final word, this study indicates that rather than embracing and promoting it as a dubious label or something of an empty slogan in the field, ELT practitioners should view ‘authenticity’ more critically and explore its nature and potential as a multi-dimensional, context-specific and co-constructed phenomenon. I believe that further research that provides classroom-based evidence to investigate ‘authenticity’ as it is constructed through the process of authentication will promote the original and creative contributions of participants to the process of language learning and teaching.

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## APPENDICES

### Appendix 1.1

The characteristics of English teaching and learning environment (taken from the 9<sup>th</sup>-12<sup>th</sup> Grades English Curriculum in Turkey, 2014)

#### Materials/Tasks...

- are **authentic in design and content** as much as possible.
- appeal to multiple senses of students to reinforce the intake of language via multiple channels.
- address students' real-life language needs (e.g. survival English, academic English) as well as their interests.
- are recycled across different units as well across different grades to foster permanent learning.
- are supported with multimedia and instructional technology tools as much as possible to immerse students in **authentic use of language**.
- support the presentation and practice of four language skills in an integrated way to reflect the complex, dynamic, and holistic nature of language.

(p. xi)

### Appendix 1.2

#### CEFR Proficiency levels (A1, A2 and B1)

B1	Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes and ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.
A2	Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment). Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need.
A1	Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce him/herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.

For the full text of CEFR for Languages, see

[http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Source/Framework\\_en.pdf](http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Source/Framework_en.pdf)

### Appendix 1.3

Some of the studies conducted on authenticity in ELT in Turkey  
National Thesis Centre, The Council of Higher Education  
(<https://tez.yok.gov.tr/UlusalTezMerkezi/>)

Title	Method.	Author	Awarded Year
A Comparative study on the impact of authentic and traditional materials on student motivation and reading skills development in upper-intermediate EFL classrooms	Questionnaires, classroom observations, group interviews	Akar, H.	1999 (Masters)
Using television programmes in English as a source of authentic EFL video materials: A study on students and teachers attitudes	Questionnaires	Boran, G.	1999 (PhD)
The effects of printed authentic materials on oral communicative ability	Control and experiment groups (pre-test, post-test)	Şafak Bayır	2000 (Masters)
A study on the impact of authentic materials on EFL students' achievement, retention and opinions regarding two grammar units at high school level	Control and experiment groups (pre-test, post-test)	Demircan, H.	2004 (Masters)
Using authentic video in teaching vocabulary in Turkish secondary level EFL classrooms	Case study with field notes, students' diaries and interviews	Güçlü Kale, N	2010 (Masters)
The use of authentic games in English language teaching	Control and experiment groups (pre-test, post-test)	Azarmi, S.	2010 (PhD)
The effect of authentic materials on 12 <sup>th</sup> grade students' attitudes and motivation in EFL classes	Control and experiment groups (pre-test, post-test, attitude scale, student diaries)	Kılıç, Z. V.	2011 (Masters)
Authentic video use in high school English courses: An empirical study on the effect of situation comedy on speaking	Control and experiment groups (pre-test, post-test, interviews)	Ulusoy, G.	2012 (Masters)
The corpus-based analysis of authenticity of ELT course books used in high schools in Turkey	Corpus analysis (based on British National Corpus)	Peksoy, E.	2013 (Masters)
The effects of using authentic materials on the achievement and the attitudes of vocational college students in a vocational college	Control and experiment groups (pre-test, post-test)	Oz, S.	2014 (Masters)
EFL instructors' perceptions about authentic materials in English language teaching	Questionnaire	Gökdemir, F.	2014 (Masters)

## Appendix 2.1

### Data collection (timetable)

		2012					2013			
		Pilot			Phase I		Phase II			
		Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	
School A	A.0	<i>Interview FJournal</i>	<i>Interview FJournal</i>							
	A.1				<i>Interview FJournal</i>		<i>Interview FJournal</i>	<i>Interview FJournal</i>	<i>Interview FJournal</i>	
	A.2				<i>Interview FJournal</i>		<i>Interview FJournal</i>	<i>Interview FJournal</i>	<i>Interview FJournal</i>	
School B	B.1				<i>Interview FJournal</i>		<i>Interview FJournal</i>	<i>Interview FJournal</i>	<i>Interview FJournal</i>	
	B.2				<i>Interview FJournal</i>		<i>Interview FJournal</i>	<i>Interview FJournal</i>	<i>Interview FJournal</i>	

\**FJournal* – Field Journals including classroom observations

**Pilot Study:** 17 September – 26 October (6 weeks)

**Main Study:**

**Phase 1:** 26 November – 04 January (6 weeks)

Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
	School A	School A	School B	School B
	(08:00 – 12:00)	(12:00 – 15:00)	(08:15 – 13:00)	(08:15 – 13:00)

**Phase 2:** 18 February – 12 April (8 weeks)

Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
School A A.1	School B B.2	School B B.1		School A A.2
(09:00 – 13:00)	(08:00 – 12:00)	(11:00 – 15:00)		(09:00 – 13:00)

## Appendix 2.2

*This preliminary guide was used in the first interview sessions with the participants. Following sessions were mainly shaped by the classroom observations, my observations in the teachers' rooms and participants' answers in the previous interviews.*

### Preliminary Interview Guide

- Overall aim in the interview
- The topics I need to cover in order to achieve this aim
- Organisation of these topics to produce a naturally developing line of exploration
- Identifying the big questions and the sorts of questions (event questions + perspective questions)
- A warm-up question
- Conducting trial interviews and piloting the guide (review and revise).

(Richards 2003, 2009b)

*(Provisional guide for teacher interviewees used at the first stages)*

1. (reminder: ethical issues and thanks)
2. Personal details
  - Name, educational background, English language teaching experience
3. Overall questions
  - What do you think about 9X? (classroom) In terms of... students' participation / classroom atmosphere / your teaching practice in the classroom?
4. Materials selection/preference
  - Can you tell me what sorts of materials you use in the classroom?
  - Why do you prefer these kinds of materials? (any criteria? personal or institutional preference?)
  - How do you find/select/design these materials? (materials sources)
  - To what extent learners are involved in the process of materials selection?
  - What can you tell me about 'authentic materials'? (What does it mean for you? What makes a text authentic? Do you use them in your teaching? Why/why not you prefer them?)
5. Materials use in the classroom (tasks)
  - Can you give me an example of how you use *these* materials in a particular activity in the classroom? (providing a specific example from my observation notes)
  - Why do/did you prefer to design that activity in this way? (e.g. students' roles, grouping, timing etc.)
  - (addressing 'language in use' in the classroom?)
6. Learners' [expected] responses and [actual] responses
  - What sort of reaction/response do/did you expect from your students? (to a particular activity)
  - In your opinion, do/did they respond to the activity (or materials) as you expected? (e.g. response in a positive or negative way)

- How do you address your learners' needs/expectations in your teaching? (while choosing materials or designing activities)
7. Culture
    - To what extent are target culture and local culture (e.g. Turkish culture?) addressed in language teaching?
    - How these issues can be covered in the classroom?
    - Multicultural experience (in teaching?) – tell me about your expectations and/or previous experiences
  8. Closing (thank)
    - Do you have anything more you want to bring up or ask about before we finish the interview?

*(Provisional guide for student interviewees)*

1. (reminder: ethical issues and thanks)
2. Personal details
  - Name, educational background, English language learning experience
3. Overall questions
  - What do you think about your class?
4. Materials preference
  - Can you tell me what sorts of materials you like to use for learning English?
  - Why do you prefer these kinds of materials?
  - What can you tell me about the materials used in the classroom?
5. Materials use
  - (imaginary context or from my observation notes – using materials [x] in activity [x] to teach [x] topic – would you like it? Or would you prefer different materials or different activities? Why?)
  - (observation notes) Why did you say/ask/do [x] in that activity?
  - If you were teaching [X] topic, what sort of materials would you choose for the class? Why would you prefer those materials and how would you use those materials? Can you explain it? (the same question can be asked in terms of 'classroom activity')
6. Culture
  - To what extent are target culture and local culture addressed in language learning?
  - Multicultural experience (in learning?) – tell me about your expectations and/or previous experiences
7. Closing (thank)
  - Do you have anything more you want to bring up or ask about before we finish the interview?

## Appendix 2.3

A guide to interview evaluation  
(taken from Richards, 2003, p.59)

Overall: What was the balance of talk?

Could you have talked less?

If you take out your contributions does the resulting account flow naturally?

Was it rich in detail?

Sections: Where there any staccato sections?

What prompted these? (Wh- questions?)

What other strategies could you have used?

Were the transitions natural?

Did you close down topics early?

Was there a sense of share progress?

Turns: Did you use a range of responses?

Where might you have followed up or probed?

Which were the most/least successful questions? And why?

Did you close down any responses too early?

Were you too directive?

Action: Identify at least one thing that you will bear in mind in your next interview.

Write them down and use them in the evaluation of that interview.



## Appendix 2.4

### Transcription conventions

*Font:*  
Cambria

#### *Transcription of interviews:*

//       omitted utterances  
...       short pause or hesitance  
[ ]       additional information or paraphrasing (by the researcher)  
=       no time lapse between utterances/turns

#### *Also transcription of classroom talk (observation notes):*

T:           teacher  
TT:          teacher trainee(s)  
E:           researcher/teacher  
S1, S2 etc.   identified learner  
Ss           several students simultaneously  
CAPITAL      stressed words, phrases  
[TR]         translated from Turkish

## Appendix 2.5

### Sample of interview transcription

Turns	Speaker	Content		Notes
		Turkish	English	
01	Erkan:	Bugünkü ders nasıldı?	How was the lesson today?	
02	Emre:	Bugünkü ders sıradan.	It was ordinary.	(WC) ordinary – usual
03	Erkan:	Sıradan derken?	What do you mean by ‘ordinary’?	
04	Emre:	Her zamanki İngilizce dersiydi.	It was a usual English lesson.	what would be unusual?
05	Erkan:	Bugün diyalog da yaptınız.	You also made a dialogue today?	
06	Emre:	Evet, geçen ders biraz daha gramer işledik o yüzden pek muhabbet edemedik, konuşamadık ama bu ders, şeyleri öğrendiğimiz için, kalıpları az çok, o yüzden daha çok konuşma fırsatı bulduk bu derste.	Yes, we studied grammar in the previous lesson so we couldn’t talk much but in this lesson, as we learnt the things, the structures more or less, so we had more chance to talk in this lesson.	
07	Erkan:	O diyalog nasıldı?	How was that dialogue?	[be more descriptive]
08	Emre:	Diyalog güzeldi.	It was good.	
09	Erkan:	İkili yaptınız ya tahtanın önünde.	You did it in pairs in front of the board.	
10	Emre:	Tahtadaki? biraz gereksizdi bence.	In front of the board? It was a bit unnecessary, I think.	
11	Erkan:	Niye?	Why?	
12	Emre:	O diyalog gereksizdi sonuçta önceden hazırlıyorsunuz, yani önceden hazırlanan şeyin pek bir katkısı olmaz ki sizin konuşmanıza... onun yerine writing, kendinizi anlatsanız hadi daha böyle yazmanıza, writing’e daha faydası olur ama böyle bir diyalog hazırlarken ne speaking’i tam yaparsınız ne de writing’i tam yaparsınız... yani konuşmayı geliştirmek içinse böyle doğaçlama olması çok daha faydalı	That dialogue was unnecessary because you prepared it and I think when it is prepared beforehand, it is not very useful to improve your speaking... rather, it would be writing, if you express yourself, then it would be useful for your writing, but while preparing such a dialogue, you wouldn’t do speaking completely nor writing... I mean if it aims to improve speaking then it is more useful in a spontaneous way.	Preparedness vs. spontaneity  writing vs. speaking

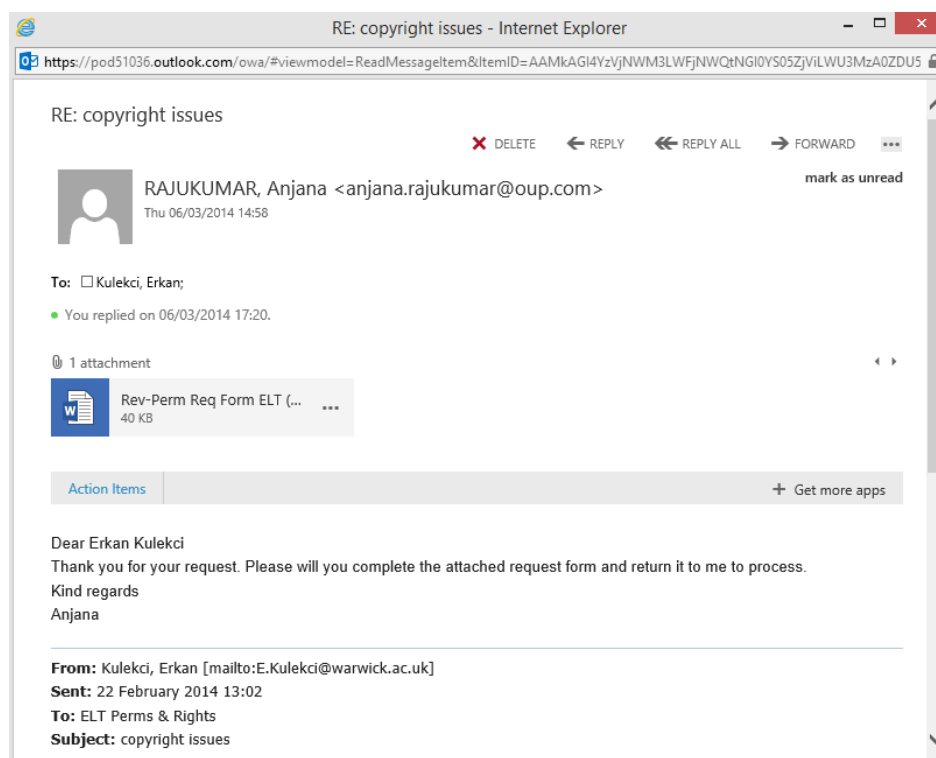
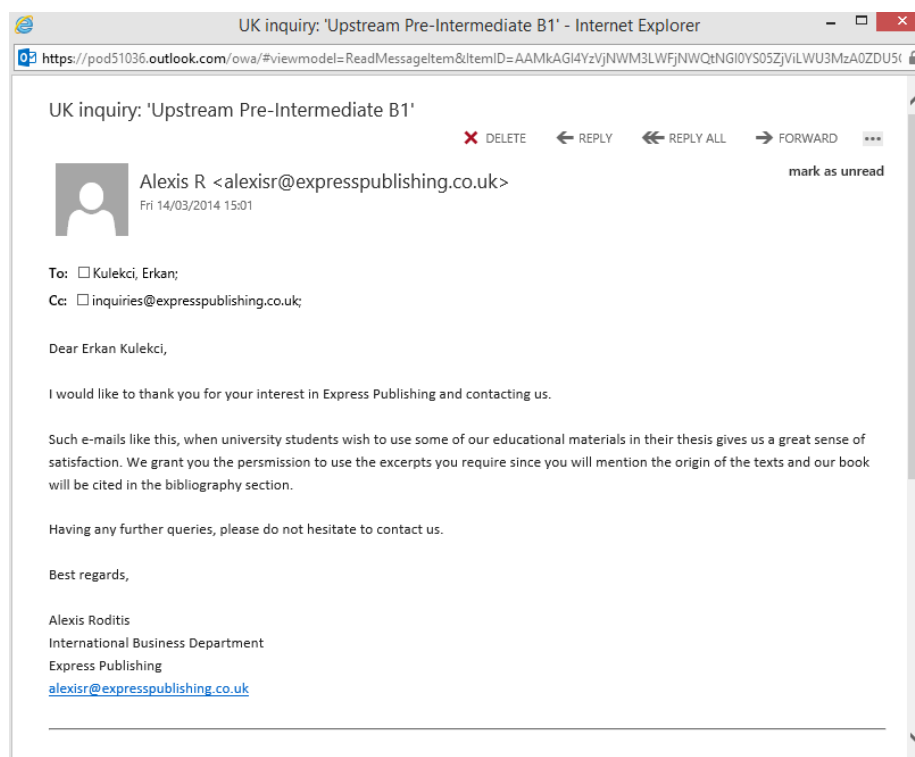
		bir şey bence.	
13	Erkan:	Şey mi mesela hadi siz ikiniz konuşun deyip direkt konuşursa mı?	By spontaneously, do you mean like the teacher says ‘ok, you two talk about this’ and asks you to make a dialogue.
14	Emre:	Ya öyle de pek çoğu kişi konuşmak istemez ama mesela derste hocayla konuşunca, babanız ne yapıyor evde anneniz mi daha çok çalışıyor, o mesela güzeldi doğrudan konuşturuyordu kişiyi, direkt o anda düşünüp cevaplıyordunuz onu, o yönden daha speaking’e bence en faydalı etkinlik sınıftaki oydu.	Then not many would want to talk... but, when we talk with the teacher in the lesson... for example ‘what does your father do? does your mother work more at home’, it was very good. It makes you talk, you simultaneously think and answer them. I think that was the most beneficial classroom activity to speaking. <i>spontaneous speaking - beneficial</i>
15	Erkan:	Zaten diğerinde speakingten çok herkes yazdığını okudu. Hiç öyle direkt okumadan yapan olmadı sanırım.	Besides, everyone read what they had written down rather than speaking. I guess there was no one doing it without directly reading.
16	Emre:	Aynen öyle	Exactly.
17	Erkan:	Peki o şey... daha iyi dediğin... hani şu anne ve babanızla ilgili bir konuşma olmuştu sınıfta.	What about that... the one you said better... like there was talk in the classroom about what your mothers and fathers.
18	Emre:	Evet.	Yes.
19	Erkan:	İşte o tarz şeyleri hocanız genelde yapıyor aslında, bir konu hakkında konuşurken direkt ya da aniden soruyor hani siz ne düşünüyorsunuz, işte anneniz ne yapıyor, babanız ne yapıyor.	Actually your teacher usually does these kinds of things, when you are talking about something, she directly or suddenly asks like ‘what do you think? or what does your mother do? or what does your father do?
20	Emre:	Evet sonra muhabbet gelişiyor.	Yes, then the conversation develops.
21	Erkan:	Daha mı iyi oluyor?	Is it better?
22	Emre:	Ben onları daha yararlı buluyorum.	I find [such spontaneous talks] more beneficial.
23	Erkan:	Niye?	Why?
24	Emre:	Çünkü anlık bir şey yani, sonuçta siz de gittiğinizde oraya, anlık konuşuyorsunuz orada bir şey sormanız gerektiğinde, şunu mu	Because it happens instantaneously. When you go there, you talk spontaneously, when you need to ask something there, you don’t think

		desem bunu mu desem diye düşünmüyorsunuz yani cümle kurarken... yani böyle konuştuğumuz zaman da yani bir yere kadar hadi kurarsınız cümleyi ama ondan sonra mecburen kendiliginden kurmak zorunda kalıyorsunuz cümleyi, anlık olan bir şey, o da yani faydası olduğunu düşünüyorum sınıfta.	much about what to say and how to say it, I mean while making sentences... I mean, you make the sentence in your head to some extent but then you have to talk spontaneously, make sentences instantaneously... so I think it was useful in the class.	<i>spontaneity in daily communication</i>  <i>classroom</i>
25	Erkan:	Orada öyle konuşuyoruz derken, orası dediğin?	What do you mean by you talk like that 'there'?	
26	Emre:	Evet, gerçek hayatta, mesela bir İngiltereye gittiğinizde mesela bir kafe'ye gittiğinizde bir kahve alabilir miyim derken düşünürsünüz ama orada mesela bir yabancıya bir adres falan sorarken, orada yani anlık gelişen bir olaydır o, o yüzden anlık düşürsünüz, anlık kurarsınız cümleleri.	In daily life... For example, when you go to England, to a cafe, you may think about how to say 'can I have coffee, please' but when you ask for a direction or something... it happens spontaneously so you simultaneously make and say your sentences.	<i>'spontaneous communication'</i>  <i>England</i>

taken from *Emre, 130301*

## Appendix 3.1

### E-mail responses from textbook publishers regarding copyright issues



## Appendix 3.2

### Permission Letter from Ministry of National Education in Turkey

T.C.  
ANKARA VALİLİĞİ  
Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü

Sayı : B.08.4.MEM.0.06.20.01-60599/44473  
Konu : Araştırma İzni  
Erkan KÜLEKÇİ


14/06/2012

MİLLÎ EĞİTİM BAKANLIĞINA  
(Ortaöğretim Genel Müdürlüğü)

İlgi: a) MEB Yenilik ve Eğitim Teknolojileri Genel Müdürlüğünün 2012/13 nolu genelgesi.  
b) 08/06/2012 tarih ve 14536 sayılı yazınız.

Universtiy of Warwick doktora öğrencisi Erkan KÜLEKÇİ' nin "9. sınıf İngilizce dersinde kullanılan özgün materyaller ve aktivitelerin sunumu ve uygulaması ile ilgili öğrenci ve İngilizce dersi öğretmenlerinin bu materyaller ve aktiviteler hakkındaki tutum ve düşüncelerinin araştırılması" konulu araştırması ile ilgili çalışma yapma isteği Müdürlüğümüzce uygun görülmüş ve araştırmanın yapılacağı İlçe Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğüne bilgi verilmiş olup, mühürlü görüşme soruları ekte gönderilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize arz ederim.

  
İlhan KOÇ  
Müdür a.  
Şube Müdürü

EKLER :  
Görüşme soruları (2 sayfa)

---

İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü-Beşevler  
Bilgi için:Nermin ÇELENK

Tel : 221 02 17  
istatistik06@meb.gov.tr

## Appendix 3.3

### Information Sheet for the participants



#### Participant Information Sheet

**Project title:** Investigating the notion of authenticity in ELT in Turkey

**Research Student:** Erkan Kulekci

I am Erkan Kulekci, a PhD candidate in ELT in the Centre for Applied Linguistics, University of Warwick, UK. I am sponsored by the Ministry of National Education in Turkey for my PhD studies. Currently, I am in the process of data collection and this information sheet is prepared to inform you about this process and your participation.

#### Purpose of the study and participation

You are invited to participate in a study on authentic experience of language learning and teaching in language classrooms in high schools in Turkey. The study will take place in 2012-2013 academic year. The purpose of this study is to investigate the nature of 'authenticity' in the English language classrooms. The findings of the study will contribute to future studies on authenticity, language learning and teaching and materials development.

This study uses following research methods and your participation may involve at least one of them:

- a) Classroom observations (audio-recorded, multiple-sessions)
- b) Interviews (audio-recorded, multiple-sessions)
- c) Materials/documents collection (when necessary)

#### Confidentiality, privacy and participation rights

You are free to decide whether or not to participate in this study. Your decision on whether or not to participate will be respected by the researcher. If you decide to participate, you will have the option to withdraw from the study at any time without any penalties or prejudice. All data obtained from your participation will be confidential and will be used only for research purposes. In order to protect your identity, pseudonyms will be used in the excerpts used in research reports. The data will be kept securely on my personal computer, which is password-protected. At the completion of the study, you will be most welcome to consult the research findings.

If you have any questions or suggestions concerning the study, please do not hesitate to talk with me. I will be glad to answer any questions before, during and/or after your participation.

Thank you very much for your interest and cooperation.

[date]

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## Appendix 3.4

### Sample Consent Form for the participants (for teachers)



#### Participant Consent Form (for teachers)

**Project title:** Investigating the notion of authenticity in ELT in Turkey

**Research Student:** Erkan Kulekci

Dear \_\_\_\_\_,

As I am in the process of data collection, I would be grateful if you allow me to observe one of your 9<sup>th</sup> grade classes. I believe that classroom observation will provide valuable information for my study. The class, specific times, particular durations and frequency of observations will be determined by you. With your permission, I will use a small audio-recorder during these observations. In addition to classroom observation, I will also use interview in my study as a research method and I would be very grateful if you also allow me to interview you. With your permission, the interviews will be conducted in multiple sessions and will be audio-recorded for the purpose of this study. The interviews aim to elicit your opinions about and attitudes toward the process of language learning and teaching, including materials selection and activity design in the classroom.

I would be very grateful if you could sign this consent form after you read the information sheet carefully. You may keep the information sheet for your records. Your signature below indicates that

- 1) You have read and understood the information sheet dated \_\_\_\_\_,
- 2) You have decided to participate in this study and reserve the right of withdrawing your consent at any time without being penalised or disadvantaged in any way (your participation is voluntary),
- 3) You are allowing the researcher observe some of your lessons and conduct interviews with you (details about times and durations of these as well as about audio-recording procedures will be determined by you)

As stated in the information sheet, your information will be kept and processed only for research purposes and your identity will be anonymous.

Thank you very much for your cooperation, assistance and participation.

Erkan Kulekci

.....  
(participant's full name and signature)

.....  
(date)



## Appendix 4.1

### List of themes (Data analysis)

<b>Classroom A.1</b>	
	Adding a personal touch Authenticity – teacher’s description Different expectations and practises in the second term Recontextualising non-pedagogical texts Spontaneous remarks in the lesson Literature corner in the textbook – students’ responses
<b>Classroom A.2</b>	
	Addressing international and local cultures Classroom acts validated by the teacher Comments on the textbooks – MEB vs. OUP Comparing everyday language use with language used in the classroom Discrepancy of interpretation Procedural vs. spontaneous outcomes
<b>Classroom B.1</b>	
	Addressing international and local cultures Creating imaginary scenarios in the classroom iTools as an efficient teaching tool Providing model input for students Relating the topic to daily life
<b>Classroom B.2</b>	
	Authenticity – teacher’s description Comments on the textbooks – MEB vs. OUP iTools as an efficient teaching tool Procedural vs. personal outcomes Teacher-prepared materials with various responses Teacher’s intro – random conversation before the lessons Teacher’s normative acts Unanticipated responses given by the students

## Appendix 4.2

### Themes and sample codes (Findings)

		Page
<b>Chapter 5 – Classroom A.1</b>		
<i>5.2. Recontextualising non-pedagogical texts in the classroom</i>		
A reading text selected by TTs and the teacher's intervention to review the vocabulary items	<b>Recon#1</b>	143
Movie scenes presented by TTs to review the if-clauses	<b>Recon#2</b>	150
<i>5.3. Adding a personal touch to task outputs</i>		
Making a short story long in the classroom	<b>Person#1</b>	160
Asking students to include their opinions in their writing	<b>Person#2</b>	168
<i>5.4. Spontaneous remarks within the flow of the lesson</i>		
Teacher's instantaneous responses to emerging conditions	<b>Spon#1</b>	175
Real responses to unreal situations	<b>Spon#2</b>	181
<b>Chapter 6 – Classroom A.2</b>		
<i>6.2. Comparing everyday language with language used in the classroom</i>		
News report in the textbook	<b>CLang#1</b>	195
An example that 'at least shows the structure'	<b>CLang#2</b>	202
<i>6.3. Discrepancy of interpretation</i>		
Teacher trainee's attempt to remedy the input for the sake of 'authenticity'	<b>Disc#1</b>	207
Student's attempt to justify his interpretation	<b>Disc#2</b>	212
<i>6.4. Procedural vs. spontaneous outcomes in the classroom</i>		
Procedural outcomes	<b>ProS#1</b>	217
Spontaneous conversations in the classroom	<b>ProS#2</b>	221
<b>Chapter 7 – Classroom B.1</b>		
<i>7.2. Addressing international and local cultures in the language classroom</i>		
Culture: Halloween	<b>Cult#1</b>	238
Culture: Special occasions in local culture	<b>Cult#2</b>	246
<i>7.3. Relating the topic to daily life</i>		
'Do you have to wear school uniforms?'	<b>Daily#1</b>	253
'When did you break your arm?'	<b>Daily#2</b>	257
<i>7.4. Creating imaginary scenarios in the classroom</i>		
Giving directions for Anıtkabir	<b>Imagi#1</b>	263
Acting out: 'Canparem restaurant'	<b>Imagi#2</b>	267
<b>Chapter 8 – Classroom B.2</b>		
<i>8.2. Teacher-prepared materials with varying responses</i>		
Talking about the portraits on the Turkish banknotes	<b>TPMat#1</b>	283
A matching game to practise 'there is/there are' (TT)	<b>TPMat#2</b>	289
<i>8.3. Unanticipated responses given by the students</i>		
Living in a cage	<b>Anti#1</b>	295
Responding in Turkish	<b>Anti#2</b>	298
<i>8.4. Procedural vs. personal outcomes in the classroom</i>		
Procedural outcomes in a speaking activity	<b>ProP#1</b>	303
Personal outcomes in a writing activity	<b>ProP#2</b>	307

### Appendix 4.3

Specific features observed in the findings to describe the nature of the relationship between different components

Linkages between components	Features
Classroom – Teacher	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Being present in the context and engaged with the text and task to some extent</li> </ul>
Classroom – Learner	
Genesis account of authenticity – Teacher	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Individual contribution, revising the classroom task</li> <li>• Personalised questions, comments</li> <li>• Sharing personal stories, opinions and views</li> </ul>
Genesis account of authenticity – Learner	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Individual contribution</li> <li>• Personalised outcomes</li> <li>• Sharing personal stories, opinions and views</li> <li>• Showing interest and enjoyment</li> </ul>
Classroom – Pedagogical use of language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Useful in language learning</li> <li>• Relevant in language learning</li> <li>• Relation to practice of language skills</li> <li>• Easy to remember (target structure, vocabulary items etc.)</li> </ul>
Classroom – ‘real’ language use	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Being able to express themselves</li> <li>• Relation to the local context or to a somewhat realistic context</li> <li>• Feeling of ‘everyday language use’ during the classroom task</li> </ul>
Correspondence account of authenticity – Pedagogical use of language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Relation to the design and content of the classroom task</li> <li>• Relation to the purpose of the text</li> <li>• Relation to the lesson plan in general</li> <li>• Pedagogical purposes</li> </ul>
Correspondence account of authenticity – ‘real’ language use	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Similarities with everyday language use</li> <li>• Dialogic and interactive nature of language use</li> <li>• ‘communicative’ purposes</li> </ul>

## Appendix 5

### A sample of data analysis process (Classroom A.1)

Sources	Extracts	Context	Codes	Categories	Themes
A.1#7	<b>S1:</b> <i>Can I ask you something? Do you think the guy who designed shopping trolley makes a lot of money with the patents?</i>	Shopping trolleys and patent issues	Initiation / permission Question about shopping trolley and patents	Students' voices heard by the teacher *** Changing the flow of the lesson *** Teacher's approach to students' queries *** Students' positive responses	Spontaneous remarks within the flow of the lesson
A.1#7	<b>T:</b> <i>I will show you a very interesting thing about this...</i>		Introducing a new text - interesting		
Kamile, 130408	[40] <i>Our students are different. You need to satisfy them in terms of their needs to access information... Or you may affect your relationship with students in a bad way.</i>		Different student profile Need for accessing information  T-S relationships		
Ezgi, 130225	[90] <i>Sometimes she doesn't do that... generally when... only when it's something about social life or cultural things, she shows other resources</i>		Social life/culture related topics  Showing other resources		
Ezgi, 130225	[92] <i>It was fun... especially in that lesson, there was nothing distracting. We were talking around the same topic, it was fun. It was also good for general knowledge.</i>		Fun  Not distracting  Good for general knowledge		
Yusuf, 130301	[22] <i>I liked that, I mean I kind of changed the direction of the lesson, we were looking at one text and then we started to talk about another one</i>		Liking the act  Changing the direction of the lesson		
Yusuf, 130301	[36] <i>...even if irrelevant questions like the one I asked are asked in the lesson, she always give answers, she never ignores or leaves it unanswered.</i>		Always getting response  Teacher's style		

## Appendix 6

A sample of data analysis process (Classroom A.2)

Sources	Extracts	Context	Codes	Categories	Themes
A.2#7	<b>T:</b> <i>Who is going to clean the board?</i> (a student stood up and cleaned the board). <i>He is always cleaning the board, he MUST be kind, a gentleman... SI never cleans the board, he can't be kind.</i>	must / have to (modal verbs)	Cleaning the board	Unplanned actions	Spontaneous outcomes in the classroom (vs. procedural ones)
			Comment about the volunteer student		
			Using target structure	***	
A.2#7	<b>T:</b> (drinking water) <i>The teacher is drinking water, she must...?</i>		Unplanned action		
			Using target structure		
Beyza, 130225	[26] <i>I think they made the topic catchier, easy to remember.</i>		Elicitation	***	
			Catchier Easy to remember		
Beyza 130225	[28] <i>I mean, it's a good thing but one shouldn't cross the borders while giving examples.</i>		Good  Shouldn't be offensive	Students' positive responses	
Emre, 130222	[56] <i>It is better. At the end, when it is given in an example on a real event from daily life, the structure becomes catchier, more meaningful.</i>	Based on real experience  Catchier  Meaningful			

## Appendix 7

### A sample of data analysis process (Classroom B.1)

Sources	Extracts	Context	Codes	Categories	Themes
B.1#2	<b>T:</b> <i>They have to, HAVE TO, tidy their rooms every morning! have to... very important. Do you have to tidy your rooms in the mornings?</i>	have to  school uniforms	Emphasising have to  Personalising the question	Personalising the questions *** Intentionally raising the issue *** Wearing school uniforms *** Opposite opinions	Relating the topic to daily life
B.1#2	<b>T:</b> <i>What about uniforms? Is it a must? No... You don't have to wear uniforms in the school anymore.</i>		Wearing school uniforms  Personalising the question		
B.1#2	<b>T:</b> <i>I didn't like it much but we'll see (in Turkish). What do you think about it?</i>		Teacher's disliking the new regulation  Asking for students' opinions		
B.1#2	<b>S5:</b> <i>It's great (in Turkish) I really liked it.</i> <b>T:</b> <i>I don't agree with you. Anyway...</i>		S –liking the new regulation  T – disagreeing with S		
Field note, 12.12. 2012	She stated that she had deliberately brought the topic into the lesson as it's very trendy and it could help students remember the subject ('have to')...		Intentionally raised topic  Hot topic		
Nilay, 121211	[66] <i>Then we said no. It was interesting. Because some of us really like this...</i>		Interesting		
Nilay, 121211	[68] <i>We can't talk in English that much, our level isn't that high.</i>		Low proficiency level		

## Appendix 8

### A sample of data analysis process (Classroom B.2)

Sources	Extracts	Context	Codes	Categories	Themes
B.2#7	There were eight situations given in the textbook and I asked students to choose only one of them to write a note (the textbook activity asked for selecting two situations) ... It was interesting because students did not choose any of the situations, but tend to write their own notes for the current situations.	Writing a message in English	Situations given in the textbook  Instructions   Not using the given situations  Writing notes on the current situations	Writing notes in English	Personal outcomes in the classroom (vs. procedural ones)
B.2#7	<b>S2:</b> <i>Dear Esra, I was so sorry to hear that you aren't well. I know it's a bad ill...</i>		A message to a classmate  Sympathy note	***  Sincere messages	
B.2#7	<b>S5:</b> <i>Dear Ozan, I love you... You know this. When I need help, you always help me.</i>		A message to a classmate  Thank-you note	***  Personal outcomes	
Emir, 130306	[72] <i>It was nice. Not everyone did that though. Most [of my classmates] read similar ones, they just repeated the ones in the textbook. But yes, some of them did differently, I liked it. It was interesting and I think it's more useful because it was for a real thing, I mean, it was more purposeful? I remember someone said 'don't die before I come', it was funny.</i>		Nice  Repeating the sample in the textbook  Liking it  Interesting Useful  Meaningful and purposeful with real message  Funny	***  Meaningful with a purpose	